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Portuguese as a Foreign Language: Teaching and Learning in the United States: A Dissertation

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Abstract

This dissertation reviewed the history of foreign language education in the United States relating it to political and economic world events. A quantitative study and a hypothesis-generating case study revealed the motivation of learners of Portuguese as a foreign language. Portuguese teachers in higher education in the United States were surveyed and three recently published Portuguese textbooks were analyzed. The results showed that the main reasons that motivate students to learn Portuguese as a foreign language are interest in Brazilian culture, plans to travel in a Portuguese-speaking country, familiarity with Spanish language, skills needed to reach professional goals and being part of a Portuguese-speaking community. Faculty currently teaching Portuguese as a foreign language are mostly women with Ph. D. degrees who have experience and training in the field. The analysis of the three Portuguese textbooks looked at their cultural content and showed that there are particular cases where the interpretation of cultural content goes beyond the factual aspect of the situation.

Keywords: Portuguese as a foreign language, motivation, teacher profile, culture.

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Chapter One - Introduction

In this dissertation I investigate the teaching and learning of Portuguese as a foreign language (FFL) in higher education (HE) in the United States (U.S.). I was motivated to focus my research on Brazil and on Brazilian Portuguese language and culture partly because of my Brazilian background, and partly because of my several years of experience of teaching Portuguese as a foreign language (PFL) in the U.S. There is consensus in the view that students who choose to study Portuguese do so because they aspire to make a connection with Brazil. This statement is based on my personal teaching experience and research, as well as the findings of Dell'Isola (2005). This consensus should not be surprising because it is estimated that more than 249 million people speak Portuguese worldwide, and 77% of the estimated Portuguese speakers are from Brazil, meaning that on average out of every ten Portuguese speakers in the world at least seven are Brazilians.

At the same time, Portuguese is the fifth most spoken language in the world, and it is an official language in eight countries: Angola, Brazil, Cape Verde, East Timor, Guinea-Bissau, Mozambique, Portugal, and São Tome and Principe (Azevedo, 2005). Portuguese is also spoken in Macau (China) and in Goa (India). Currently, Portuguese programs are flourishing in colleges and universities in the U.S., and are referred to as Luso-Brazilian studies and/or Luso-African-Brazilian studies.

There are several differences between European Portuguese (EP) and Brazilian Portuguese (BP) that can be seen on the level of grammar (syntax), spelling (orthography), vocabulary (lexicon) and important distinctive variation. In 1990, an

orthographic agreement among the Portuguese-speaking countries sought to unify the spelling of Portuguese and this agreement was finally implemented in 2009.

The study of Portuguese as a foreign language (PFL) in the United States, especially as it pertains to Brazilian language and culture, has increased significantly in the last l0 years when compared to that of other traditional languages, such as German, Spanish, French and Italian. In the last 5 years in Massachusetts, at least four universities, MIT, Boston University, Tufts University and Northeastern University, have successfully implemented Portuguese language programs. Also, according to the Modern Language Association (MLA) Fall 2009 report (Furman, Goldberg & Lusin, 2010) enrollments in Portuguese classes increased by 10.8% in the entire U.S. from 2006 to 2009.

Another Modern Language Association (MLA, 2010) report shows that there are about 500,000 Portuguese and Portuguese Creole speakers in the U.S. We can infer that in the not so distant future, a great number of these individuals will have access to higher education and may become language instructors or heritage speakers/learners of Portuguese in the U.S. This may bring about an increase in the number of Portuguese students in higher education.

Portuguese language studies have been part of higher education in the U.S. since 1920, and Portuguese is the second most spoken Romance language in the world. However, it seems that Portuguese language study has not yet reached its optimal place and its presence in the curriculum has not been fully established in the U.S. I hope that my research will contribute in some way to making that possible.

Research Questions

This dissertation seeks to investigate the status of Portuguese teaching and learning in higher education in the U.S. Specifically, I will answer the following questions: Why has the study of Portuguese as a foreign language increased in the U.S. in the last decade? What motivates these learners to learn Portuguese? Who is currently teaching Portuguese in higher education in the U.S.? I will also investigate how Portuguese is currently being taught in higher education in the U.S. I will review three textbooks of PFL recently published in the U.S. and I will focus on the connection between the teaching of Portuguese language and the culture, more specifically Brazilian culture. In addition I will investigate the content of PFL books regarding the role of culture in text and context.

Research Design and Methodology

This dissertation is divided into six chapters including the introduction as chapter one. Chapter two will address questions regarding foreign language learning and teaching in higher education and the status of Portuguese as a foreign language in the United States. I start by reviewing language politics in colonial times in North America. Then, I move on to discuss foreign language (FL) politics in modern 20th and 21st century United States. In this context I look at language and war; more specifically, I look at how foreign language learning and teaching are directly connected to times of war. Third, I study the importance of foreign language in education, specifically in higher education. I provide some insights into the Advanced Placement (AP) credit and on how recent Brazilian immigration has affected and continues to affect the high school population and the demand for AP credit in the late 20th and early 21st century in the United States. Finally, I

close with an examination of the relationship between foreign language learning and globalization; as well as the impact of globalization on the status of PFL in the U.S.

Chapter three focuses on the student's motivation to learn Portuguese in the U.S. In this chapter I review the literature about the role of motivation in second language learning, specifically Krashen, Long, and Scarcella (1979), Ellis (1985, 1997), Crookes and Schmidt (1991), Oxford and Shearin (1994), Dörnyei (1994), Dörnyei, Csizér and Néneth (2006), Williams, Burden, and Lanvers (2002), and others who have based their research on the Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) studies. Then, I engage in a quantitative analysis of survey data of undergraduate students. I use an existing recent survey collected from a sample of seven universities in the United States.[1] The focus is on how students rate several alternative reasons/motives for taking Portuguese classes in colleges across the US. The final part of the chapter uses a hypothesis-generating methodology.[2] I interviewed one student who attended one of my PFL classes in the fall of 2006. I developed a set of questions, and I analyze the responses, which will serve as one example of the motivation of an adult student learning Portuguese in the U.S.

Chapter four investigates the profile of those who are currently teaching Portuguese as a foreign language in the U.S. In 2010, I collected data from a survey that I designed for Portuguese faculty in universities across the U.S. In this survey, I will analyze the faculty members' background and qualifications to teach PFL. My purpose is to better

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[1] The survey has been designed by Jouet-Pastre (2009). My focus on non-heritage speakers here is motivated by the development of BRICs and globalization as reasons for the recent growth of PFL in the U.S.

[2] See Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) for the methodology.

understand the current state of affairs in terms of the quality of the professionals who are currently teaching PFL in the U.S. I find this important because those professionals bear some of the responsibility for expanding the number of Portuguese speakers in the current socio-dynamic and global environment.

Chapter five examines how the Portuguese language is currently being taught in the U.S. I will review three recent PFL textbooks; *Brasil: Lingua e Cultura* (3rd ed. 2006); *Ponto de Encontro* (2007) and *Working Portuguese for Beginners* (2010). I will examine the texts through the lenses of the components and characteristics of the standards established by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), focusing on communicative approach and the role of culture since it plays a prominent role in those standards. The main question is: how do these textbooks teach Brazilian culture? I explore different concepts and models of culture and the teaching of language and culture along the lines of Tylor (1871), Benedict (1934), Brooks (1964), Geertz (1973), Kramsch (1993, 1998), Duranti (1997), Byram and Grundy (2003) and Brown and Eisterhold (2004) and discuss how culture is presented in those textbooks.

Chapter six is the conclusion and there I highlight the main findings of my research. Also, I point to certain limitations of my research, which will serve as guidance for further investigation about FL teaching and learning in the U.S., with particular attention to Portuguese as a Foreign Language in the United States.

Contribution to the Field

My contribution to the area of teaching and learning of Portuguese as a foreign language is fourfold. First, I will examine what factors explain the expansion of Portuguese as a foreign language in higher education in the U.S. I will investigate

whether politics matter for PFL teaching and learning in the U.S. My focus here is on the geopolitical, the economic moment, war, and globalization. In particular, I identify the time periods that most significantly affect foreign language learning and teaching in the U.S. with particular attention to Brazilian Portuguese.

Second, I provide insight into what motivates students to study Portuguese. What are the reasons that they give?

After the discussion concerning student motivation, I look at the current profile of the faculty teaching PFL in higher education in the U.S. I seek to understand the current state of PFL faculty satisfying the increased demands for Portuguese classes in higher education in the United States. Finally, I analyze three textbooks that are currently used to teach Portuguese in the U.S. and focus on how culture and PFL are intertwined.

The purpose of my investigation is based on my own desire to better understand the status of teaching and learning of foreign language in the U.S., specifically as they are related to Portuguese. One of my main contributions is sharing the information I have gathered in my research and in my own experience as a teacher.[3] Knowledge transfer enhances and fortifies our commitment to teach and to develop better classroom environments to promote learning. My interactions with students, their feedback, and their enthusiasm for learning the language, the cultural aspects of the language and the country, continue to provide me with daily inspiration to seek further knowledge.

[3] For example, in my survey of PFL faculty I capture the role of training versus experience in teaching PFL in the U.S.

Chapter Two - Foreign Language Education, Higher Education Policy and Politics in the United States: How Is Higher Education Language Policy Influenced by Politics in the United States?

As stated in chapter one the purpose of my dissertation is to investigate the teaching and learning of Portuguese as a foreign language in the U.S. This chapter will disclose past and current events in regards to foreign language learning and teaching in higher education (HE) and the status of Portuguese as a foreign language in the U.S. First, I discuss foreign language (FL) politics from colonial times in North America to the modern 20th and 21st century U.S. I start by reviewing language history and politics in colonial times. Then, I look at foreign languages and war; more specifically, how foreign language learning and teaching are directly connected to times of war. Third, I study the importance of foreign language in education, specifically in higher education. I provide some insights into the Advanced Placement (AP) credit and on how recent immigration has affected and continues to affect the high school population and the demand for AP credit in the late 20th and early 21st century in the United States. Finally, I close with an examination of the relationship between foreign language learning and globalization.

The History of Foreign Language Education in the United States

Foreign language education in the U.S. began shortly after the arrival of the English settlers who upon their settlement in the new world implemented their educational style along with their religious beliefs and traditions (Childers, 1964).

During colonial times a number of languages besides English and indigenous American languages were spoken in the United States. French and Spanish were widely spoken and taught formally and informally by missionaries in the north, and in the

Florida and California colonies around 1608 (Watzke, 2003). German was the most widely spoken non-English language in colonial times in North America (Ricento & Burnaby, 1998; Schmid, 2001), and it was intensively taught in the middle colonies[4] of North America (Watzke, 2003).

In general, language and religion played an important role in shaping American education. For example, the Puritans[5] believed that education and the use of proper language were important for understanding the bible and sermons. Schools tailored their curriculum according to European models to educate young men for their careers in theology, medicine and law (Childers, 1964). In fact, the educational system in the colonial period followed the utilitarian tradition, which served as a tool for different groups to create a new society (Perkinson, 1968).

According to Pentlin (1984) the founding fathers insisted on the importance of English as part of the essential education of American children. In schools, classical languages such as Latin and Greek were required of students to fulfill the university

[4] Middle colonies in the U.S. were Delaware, Pennsylvania, New York and New Jersey.

[5] "Puritans was the name given in the 16th century to the more extreme Protestants within the Church of England who thought the English Reformation had not gone far enough in reforming the doctrines and structure of the church; they wanted to purify their national church by eliminating every shred of Catholic influence. In the 17th century many Puritans emigrated to the New World, where they sought to found a holy Commonwealth in New England. Puritanism remained the dominant cultural force in that area into the 19th century". Retrieved from http://mb-soft.com/believe/txc/puritani.htm

entrance requirement (Childers, 1964), while modern languages,[6] such as Spanish, French and German were taught, initially, in elementary schools for vocational purposes.

Latin had been a universal language since the Renaissance, as the language of the church, the state and the law, and it remained in use to some extent through part of the 20th century (Childers, 1964; Kachru, 1992); it is not surprising that Latin was taught at the secondary level in Latin grammar schools because these schools prepared boys in a period of seven to nine years, for study at Harvard[7] and other colleges (Inglis as cited in Watzke, 2003). The distinctions between modern language teaching for vocational purposes in elementary school and the teaching of Latin in higher education continued to exist until the 19thcentury (Watzke, 2003).

The history of U.S. foreign language education registered that German was the most widely spoken non-English language during colonial times in North America. Most German communities had their own schools where books and instructions were in German only (Gaustad, 2006). The dominance of the German language especially in Pennsylvania provoked some concern among the rulers of the country mostly because

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[6] "Modern Languages are built around the modern European nation state, and its colonizing project. They are "modern" not simply because they are opposed to the "ancient" languages such as Latin and Greek, but also because they are opposed to the "pre-modern" languages of those colonized or those outside the European colonial system. Thus French, German, and Spanish are taught as modern languages, while Welsh, Quechua, Swahili, or Mandarin Chinese are not." Retrieved from http://faculty.arts.ubc.ca/jbmurray/research/modlang.htm

[7] Harvard University was established in 1636.

English had not been fully been granted the status of the official language of the United States.[8] Benjamin Franklin conceded that instead of making Germans learn to speak English, Americans should learn to speak German (Schmid, 2001; Lemay, 2006). This attitude may seem to have been in favor of German, but Schmid (2001) attests that, at first, Franklin had felt that the German language was in fact a threat to the nation, in the sense that it could well become more important than English. Later, as this threat was diminished, Franklin eventually supported German teaching in higher education as well.

In fact, the founding fathers spoke many languages and understood their importance in the creation of a well-educated citizen and in the maintenance of diplomatic ties with Europe. For example, Franklin could speak Italian and Spanish and Thomas Jefferson himself studied French, Latin, Greek and Spanish. However, according to Schmid (2001), Jefferson worried that immigrants would not be able to assimilate to the American culture and language, and that they would pass on their own foreign language and customs to their children born in the United States. Thomas Jefferson and other Founding Fathers' concerns can be illustrated by John Adams' famous phrase quoted in Schmid (2001) "they must cast off the European skin" (p. 16).

However, different languages were a part of the American daily life due to the diverse ethnic groups, which characterized America. Even though the cultural pluralism

[8] English has not been granted official Language in the U.S. There has been strong advocacy and action in favor of English as the official language in the United States. In 1923 a proposal declaring "American" the official language was not taken seriously in Congress, but gained the sympathy of the state of Illinois, which today has English as the official language of the state (Crawford, 1992).

of the American people remained unchanged, the English language clearly became a dominant language. Laurence Fuchs (as cited in Parillo, 2009) points out that in 1775, a time marked by the Revolutionary War, most children and grandchildren of immigrants who spoke Dutch, French and Swedish were already speaking English as well as the children and grandchildren of British settlers. Also, as early as 1735, advertising offering private lessons in French, Spanish and Portuguese was posted in large numbers around New York (Leavitt, 1961). This attests to the fact that there was a demand for the teaching of foreign languages, but it was not available to all. In addition, in earlier education, such as elementary school, the emphasis was very much on the teaching of the English language.

However, Childers (1964) explains that prior to the 19th century, knowledge of a foreign language was part of a privileged education and a sign of higher status, as well as being critical in preparing students for further education. Childers also remarks that, before 1775, French, German and Spanish were considered traditional modern languages in the U.S. educational system due in part to the initiative of private schools to hire French missionaries to teach French language and culture. At the same time, wealthy English settlers, especially in the South and in New England, hired French and German governesses to teach their children (Childers, 1964, p.5).

Given that the English language was used as an important tool to shape the identity of America, the learning of other languages served in a way to differentiate the American educational system of the privileged. Latin studies were a part of classical studies and also a privilege of the elite. Foreign languages in general gained status after

the American Revolutionary War.[9] For example, during the American Revolutionary War the French military gave support to the American colonists in their revolt against England, and consequently the French language became the most popular modern language taught in private schools (Childers, 1964). Colleges and Universities with strong ties to the European educational system started to consider the teaching of modern foreign languages with a more positive attitude.

Modern Foreign Languages in Higher Education

North American higher education followed the Continental European and British educational models, and was based principally on the structure of instructions such as in the Universities of Cambridge and Oxford in England. The goal was to provide a classical education. While the study of Latin and Greek classical languages decline in the more pragmatic world of the 18th century, modern foreign languages started gaining their place in higher education around the middle of that century. Modern languages were offered at first sporadically as noncredit courses in colleges in the United States (Leavitt, 1961; Childers, 1964). For example, as illustrated in Childers (1964) Harvard University started teaching French in 1735 with one single professor and another in 1766. There were other universities by 1830, which were quicker to add French to their curriculum; to cite a few: William and Mary, Columbia, Williams, Princeton, and the University of Virginia. In 1870, Harvard changed from the approved system to the elective system and French was kept on the curriculum permanently. By this time more higher education institutions such as Amherst College and Yale University had already added French officially to their curriculum.

[9] This event will be further reviewed below in the section on foreign language and war.

The study of Spanish also gained momentum in higher education in the second half of the 18th century (Leeman, 2007), but had less importance than French and German, which were required for an undergraduate degree in many colleges (Leeman, 2007). The interest in Spanish was slowly growing, and the American Association of Teachers of Spanish (AATS) was established in 1915 to improve Spanish instruction. However, Spanish only started having a significant enrollment around 1940, when students could eventually choose it as a major concentration (Childers, 1964).

The teaching of the Italian language in the United States followed a different path. The lack of instruction in Italian in American schools can be attributed to the significantly smaller numbers of Italian immigrants present up until the latter part of the 19th century. At that time French, German, Latin and Spanish were already established as the traditional foreign languages in the schools (Marraro, 1944; Childers, 1964). However, Italian had been offered in higher education in 1779 at William and Mary College due to Thomas Jefferson's efforts in creating a chair in Modern Languages. Later in 1825, other colleges such as Harvard University and the University of Virginia added Italian, followed by Columbia University in 1826 and Princeton University in 1830 (Childers, 1964).

What is particularly relevant to my study is that Portuguese language classes have existed since 1658 when a group of Dutch Jews who had settled in Brazil traveled to New York City and started the Congregation Shearith Israel, where Spanish, Portuguese and Hebrew were taught until the middle of the eighteen-century. In 1720 a French priest named Peter Abad was the first one to teach Portuguese in higher education in Baltimore (Tesser, 2005). In the late nineteenth century, Portuguese language courses started being

taught in Harvard University, University of Virginia and Columbia University. In 1919 a scholar named Brenner published an article in the Hispania journal praising the Portuguese language and its relevance to commercial and other relations between Brazil and United States (Brenner, 1919). In 1944, Portuguese was explicitly included in the name of the Association for Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese, an organization founded in 1917 and initially called Association for Teachers of Spanish. From that time on scholars and universities engaged in the studies of the European Portuguese in connection with Portuguese African colonies and Brazilian Portuguese. It is relevant to point out that at that time universities and scholars were torn between European and Brazilian dialects and varieties, debating if they should focus on the Brazilian or European language variation (Tesser, 2005).

From all the facts discussed above it is possible to affirm that the introduction of foreign languages in the educational system did not happen without opposition, and FLs have a long history of battling for their status in higher education. English was always part of the American system of higher education, but it did not have the same role as the classical and modern languages, which were taught more to enhance the status of a ‘well educated person’ in the society and for their role in diplomacy. In comparison, English was taught more for political reasons, and ultimately to assert the group dominance of the British settlers and to make English the national language of the United States. It also had the purpose of rallying political support from immigrants who spoke other languages. The presence of immigrants created a political dilemma, which Schmid (2001) has called “conflict in this delicate matter” (p.16). The goal of the governors was for immigrants to have to adapt to the new country and to eventually forget where they came from.

However, things did not always go smoothly. A number of Germans, for example, showed resistance toward speaking the English language, and were forcibly moved to a predetermined area in Pennsylvania in order to limit the spread of German among English speakers. Also, it was believed that Germans were unable to speak English (Schmid, 2001).

During Jefferson's presidency (1801-1809), the state of Louisiana was populated with French-speaking immigrants.[10] English was spoken without its use being enforced, but the area was carefully populated with many English-speaking Americans, which according to Baron (as cited in Schmid, 2001) was designed expressly to "prevent the territory from maintaining the French language" (p. 16). The English language was not explicitly enforced, but its very presence was carefully planned to prevent non-English immigrants from speaking their own language (Schmid, 2001).

In an effort to make English a significant dominant language in America, John Adams suggested that the language be standardized and envisioned a future need for an English language Academy, in order to maintain and fortify the English and the American political views of "Liberty, Prosperity and Glory." According to Schmid (2001), in 1780 "John Adams predicted that English would occupy a dominant role among world languages"(p.18).

In 1790, three-fourths of the white population in the United States was originally from English-speaking parts of the British Isles (Parillo, 2009). As the years went by, English became dominant in the United States, and now it is one of the major languages

[10] Louisiana was purchased by the United States from France during Jefferson's presidency.

of the world. In the United States today, English is considered the language of the majority and is considered essential for social and economic upward mobility while providing access to the “dominant culture” (Schmidt as cited in Ricento, 2006, p. 8).

Foreign Languages and War

During times of war, the United States government and foreign affairs institutions have offered incentives for the learning of foreign languages (FL). New methods of FL teaching had been created and implemented in military training. In 1941, during World War II, a program from the American Council of Learning Society (ACLS) funded by a Rockefeller grant provided language training for American specialists and supported language studies geared towards military training. Also, it provided funds for the development of language programs in the Army as well as funds for translations, grammar studies, dictionaries, and bibliographies.

Also in 1941, the American Council of Learned Societies (ACLS) partnered with the Linguistic Society of America (LSA) to set up an Intensive Language Program (ILP). Eventually, when the United States stepped into the war in December 1941, the ILP merged with the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP), which commissioned the writing of materials and the creation of crash courses in a number of languages that were considered strategically important, notably Russian, German, Dutch, Spanish, Italian, Japanese, Chinese (Mandarin and/or Cantonese), Thai, and Burmese. This marked the beginning of a long period of collaboration between the American Armed Forces and linguists (Seuren, 1998).

In 1942, the U.S. Army created the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) to meet the wartime demands for scientists, engineers, and linguists. In addition, the

program subsidized universities to train translators and interpreters to serve the war effort. According to Byram (2008), language teaching and learning is tightly linked to national security. Therefore, there is a need for government supported foreign language strategic programs.

In the 1930s the United States sought to improve its relationship with Latin American countries through an effort known as the "Good Neighbor policy."[11] This was the beginning of more active academic and professional exchange, and provided incentives for the teaching and learning of Spanish and Portuguese. According to Ornstein (1950), Portuguese language instruction and enrollment experienced extraordinary growth as a result of the implementation of the Good Neighbor policy. From 1941 to 1942 the number of students taking Portuguese increased by 172%, and continued increasing even more in the following years.

The increased interest in Portuguese language and Brazilian culture was the result of planned publicity devoted to introduce Brazil to Americans. During that time, Nelson Rockefeller, the head of the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, was responsible for publicizing the positive image of Latin American countries especially Brazil in the U.S. The program was also designed to make sure that Brazil would see a good friend in the U.S., using the radio as massive media communication (Tota, 2009). In 1939, during the World's Fair in New York, Brazil had a remarkable presence, with a

[11] The Good Neighbor policy was created by President Roosevelt in the beginning of 1930, in the pre- World War II period.

pavilion designed by architects Lúcio Costa and Oscar Niemeyer.[12] According to Tota (2009), during the late 1930s and early 1940s Brazil and North America exchanged their cultural influences using radio broadcasting speeches, sealing their cooperation and transmitting Brazilian music in the U.S., and American music in Brazil. At the same time, Americans were introduced to Carmen Miranda[13], soon to become the Brazilian icon who for many years carried the stereotype of a Brazilian image in the U.S. (Tota, 2009). All together, those events made Americans become aware of Brazilian music, art, literature, goods and the Portuguese language. They are an essential part of Ornstein's (1950) statement about the growth of Portuguese instruction and enrollments in Portuguese language courses at that time.

It is worth mentioning that Brazil hosted, for the first time, the Soccer World Cup of 1950. The U.S. soccer national team qualified and competed in the cup. At that time, this was an additional source of attention paid to Brazil in the U.S.[14]

In the late 1950s, the Soviet Union launched Sputnik, the first Earth-orbiting satellite. This was another event that influenced FL teaching and learning and education in North America. This was in the period of the Cold War. Then, the National Defense Education Act (NDEA, 1958) was approved by the U.S. Congress to improve the teaching of mathematics, science, and foreign languages in public schools (Roby, 2003).

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[12] Lúcio Costa and Oscar Niemeyer were the architects responsible for the design of Brasilia, the capital of Brazil.

[13] Carmen Miranda was a Portuguese-born Brazilian singer and performer who made her career in the U.S.

[14] The Soccer World Cup of 2014 will be hosted for the first time since 1950 in Brazil.

With the passage of the NDEA, Scarfo (1998) suggests: “Congress recognized that the defense and security of the nation were inseparably bound with education” (p.23). During that time, language laboratories blossomed in schools and universities, all funded by the government (Roby, 2003). According to the Modern Language Association (2007) “(A) national defense and security agenda arise during moments of crisis”[15] thus tending to set goals and regulation for language teaching in higher education.

Several decades later, the end of the Cold War in the late 1980s and, more recently, the tragic attacks on the United States of September 11, 2001, raised awareness of the need for speakers of languages other than English. In particular, a much higher demand for Arabic language speakers was created by military efforts following the September 11th events in the United States, and Arabic speakers drew national attention especially for security reasons (Wesche, 2003, Al-Batal, 2007).

American history has shown that national and international politics and interests influence and connect language education, language learning and national defense. Currently, in the United States the study of less-commonly taught languages, such as Portuguese, Arabic and others is supported by the government and the study of foreign languages is part of Higher Education. University curricula typically include two or three consecutive years of language study as part of their core courses.

Title VI and Language in Higher Education

Title VI is a government incentive program through the U.S. Department of Education, created in 1958 as part of the broad National Defense Education Act (NDEA),

[15] Retrieved from http://www.mla.org/flreport

which supports the study of language learning. Approximately 200 languages have been supported with funding from the Title VI programs.[16] Scarfo (1998) explains:

> Title VI of NDEA was titled "Language Development" and was composed of two parts, Part A, entitled "Centers and Research and Studies," and Part B, "Language Institutes." Part A consisted of three programs: Centers, Fellowships, and Research and Studies. The main goal of Part B was to provide advanced training of elementary and secondary language teachers and teacher trainers" (pp. 23-25).

In 1959, a report prepared by the American Council of Learned Societies (ACLS) provided the basis for the Commissioner of Education to designate six critical languages as required for primary emphasis: Chinese,[17] Japanese, Arabic, Hindi-Urdu, Portuguese, and Russian.[18] In the first year of the program contracts were put out to support several centers for the teaching of these languages. Fellowships were provided to students studying the six priority languages, and research projects were funded to find more

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[16] Retrieved from http://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ope/iegps/title-six.html.

[17] Chinese languages refer here to two languages. One is Mandarin Chinese, which is the official language of Mainland China and Taiwan and is one of the official languages of Singapore. The other Chinese Language is Cantonese, which is spoken in Hong Kong. The two main languages (Mandarin and Cantonese) use the same characters in written form, however the spoken form presents significant variation. Retrieved from http:/mandarin.about.com/od/chineseculture/a/intro_mandain.htm

[18] Also, there are 18 other languages with second priority emphasis; and 59 additional languages with third priority emphasis; see e.g. Scarfo, 1998, pp. 23-25.

effective methods of language teaching, and for the development of teaching materials. Regarding Part B of Title VI, the advanced training was carried out through short-term and regular session institutes.

Equally important are the Fulbright programs named after Senator William J. Fulbright of Arkansas. After World War II they were initiated to promote better communication between the people of the United States and the peoples of other countries.[19] In addition, Congress passed the Mutual Education and Cultural Exchange Act of 1961, also known as the Fulbright-Hays Act. While the original Fulbright program opened the door for the development of international exchanges in education, culture, and science, the Fulbright-Hays Act focused on foreign language education.[20] One section of the Act focused exclusively on strengthening education in the field of foreign languages.[21] Currently, both offer many opportunities for international exchange. The Fulbright-Hays program provides funding overseas in advanced study and research. There are opportunities for field studies, language studies and faculty training through doctoral dissertation research, faculty research, group projects and seminars.

In addition, the U.S. Department of Education offers Foreign Language and Area Studies (FLAS) fellowships, which provide financial support for institutions in higher

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[19] President Harry S. Truman signed the Fulbright Program bill into law in 1946.

[20] Note that the original Fulbright program is funded by the U.S. Department of State and the Fulbright-Hays program is funded by the U.S. Department of Education.

[21] Section 102 of the Act authorized a wide range of cultural, technical, and educational interchange activities, and Section 102 (b)(6) focused on foreign languages (Scarfo, 1998, p. 24).

education to assist graduate and undergraduate students in modern foreign languages.[22] This is without any doubt an important incentive to foreign language studies, however it is important to note that not all foreign languages get the same financial incentive. The U.S. Government may prioritize funds for certain foreign languages considered critical and other languages will receive less support.

Foreign languages assessment in the 20th and the 21st Century and the Advanced Placement Program

The Advanced Placement (AP) program started in the middle of the 20th century. It brought college-level classes and assessments to students at the secondary level. The program was created to diminish the gap between secondary and higher education, with funds from the Ford Foundation's Fund for the Advancement of Education. The fund generated two studies that suggested that secondary schools and colleges should work together to motivate students and to help them to progress at a faster pace. According to a College Board report, in 1960, the funds allocated to activities such as teacher training provided motivation and positive feedback from secondary school teachers.[23] In the 1970s and 1980s, many schools adopted the AP program and today it continues to reinforce the goal of excellence in education. The AP program covers, among other disciplines, math, science, physics, history, and foreign languages.

The AP program offers foreign language tests for French, German, Spanish, Japanese, Chinese, (Mandarin and/or Cantonese) and more recently Italian. However,

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[22] Retrieved from http://www2.ed.gov/programs/iegpsflasf/index.html

[23] Retrieved from http://apcentral.collegeboard.com/apc/public/program/history/8019.html

Italian has been suspended since May 2009 due to low enrollment. The fact that only a few foreign languages are part of the AP program gives them an advantage. Students usually continue with those specific languages once they enter college. Those secondary school students who are interested in FLs that are not part of the AP program may be concerned that they might be putting themselves at a disadvantage in pursuing the language of their choice if it is not a language included in the AP curriculum. These students may therefore be more inclined to limit their choice to the foreign languages that are part of the AP program.

However, in the United States, AP is not the only language assessment tool available. The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language (ACTFL) offers writing tests and oral proficiency exams to certify teachers and anyone who is interested as many as sixty languages.[24] For Portuguese, the ACTFL offers two options: the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI); and the Simulated Oral Proficiency (SOP) tests. The ACTFL assessments are available in eleven languages, including Portuguese, and were created by Stansfield and Kenyon from the Center of Applied Linguistic (CAL), (Cowels, Oliveira & Wiedemann, 2006). The American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese (AATSP) also offers the National Portuguese Examination (NPE), which functions an extracurricular activity designed to motivate high school students; it is not a placement or proficiency test.[25]

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[24] LTI – Language Testing International. Retrieved from http://www.languagetesting.com/home.cfm.

[25] Retrieved from http://www.aatsp.org/?page=NPEINFO

Cowels, Oliveira and Wiedemann (2006) provide a long list of proficiency exams for specific areas developed by the U.S. government and the ACTFL to fulfill the needs of professional organizations and communities. For example, the ACTFL Business Writing Test in Portuguese (BWT) consists of several written tasks. However, some schools and universities seek ways to test students' proficiency in Portuguese besides using the standardized online placement tests. These institutions allow Portuguese teachers to administer tests to students who want to be placed in more advanced courses or to be exempted from foreign language requirements. This differs from other languages, such as Spanish, which have standardized online placement tests that are used in the majority of universities.

Another alternative provided by the Brazilian government is the CELP-Bras, the only Brazilian official certificate of Brazilian Portuguese as a foreign language developed by the Brazilian Ministry of Education (MEC). The test is offered twice a year in Brazil, the United States, Chile, Germany, Japan, and many other countries. The CELP-Bras proficiency test is not only for students who want to be placed in higher course levels or to be excused from language courses. It also serves as a valuable tool to professionals who seek jobs in multinational enterprises locally or abroad as part of the globalized world.

Language and Globalization

In a simple way, globalization is the integration of multiple nations, and in theory all nations, into a single economic market. However, globalization is far more complex than that. It involves more than economic trade, multinational companies, networks and government policy-making (Held, McGrew, Goldbatt & Parraton, 2004, Held &

McGrew, 2004). Mohammadi (1999) (as cited in Dörney, Cszér & Németh, 2006) defines globalization as the "way in which, under contemporary conditions especially, relations of power and communication are stretched across the globe, involving compressions of time and space and a re-composition of a social relationship" (p. 6). The advance of technology accelerates the process of globalization, making it possible for individuals in different countries to communicate and negotiate regardless of their distance. This generates more awareness, interest and demand for FL teaching and learning. According to Block and Cameron (2002) computer technology, such as video-conferencing, practically eliminated the geographical distances and facilitated global communication enormously. Even-though, physical distance is overcome, the barriers of different languages still remains and thus the need for foreign language teaching and learning.

Globalization therefore, also provides important incentives and demands for foreign language learning and may be one main factor in explaining the increased enrollments in languages courses in higher education. Depending on their geopolitical and economic significance, some languages become more important than others (Dörney, Cszér & Németh, 2006). According to a Modern Language Association (MLA) 2002 survey, foreign language enrollments in higher education have increased significantly since 1998 (Welles, 2004). Students today are increasingly interested in learning Chinese (Mandarin and/or Cantonese), Hindi, and Portuguese. A more recent MLA study (2009, Table 2.1) shows that there has been an increase from 4,397 to 11,371 students all over the U.S. from 1983 to 2009.

The study does not give a cause or explain why enrollments have increased; however, one possible cause is the fact that economic markets have shifted. There has been a lot of debate about the importance of "emerging markets" in the new globalized world. This category includes countries such as Brazil, Russia, China, and India, called "BRIC" countries. According to Goldman Sachs,[26] the BRIC countries have the potential to be dominant players in the global economy in the foreseeable future. Mercosul, the economic and political agreement between Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay has implemented language exchange programs as part of their mission. Europe and the European Union also have language exchange programs in their agenda. As pointed out in Maurais and Morris (2003), the globalized world needs "a global linguistic" plan in order to balance the dominance of English and to maintain linguistic diversity.

The data on foreign language enrollments (Wells, 2004) confirm some discrepancy between traditional languages such as French, Spanish, German and Italian, and other foreign languages in the U.S. General interest and enrollment trends in the traditional languages seem to be constant; on the other hand, interest in other languages such as Portuguese is increasing, partly due to economic factors such as the BRIC and Mercosul. Colleges have to respond by offering more courses for students to choose from, but budgets are hard and tight.[27] This is where politics inside the higher education

[26] Goldman Sachs, (2001). Building Better Global Economics. Retrieved from http://www2.goldmansachs.com/ideas/brics/BRICs-and-Beyond.html

[27] For example, the University of Texas at Austin language department budget has been slashed by $1.8 million for the 2010-11 academic year; see Chronicle of Higher

institution play an important role in determining the choice of foreign language programs, and FL can become politicized according to market and global demands. Since colleges and universities face limited budgets, they often choose to invest in certain languages, favoring one over another.

The current global economic changes might be responsible for the increased interest in foreign language learning and might contribute to higher enrollments in foreign languages in colleges and universities. Even though English is still the dominant business language around the world and the international language of the Internet, there is a demand for other languages as well, pushing colleges to change their course offerings and their curriculum. This is partly done by involving more technology in the teaching of foreign languages and thus providing a more globalized education.

The increase in interest in the Portuguese language may be partly attributed to the BRIC effect and the economic momentum of prosperity in Brazil. In fact late in 2011 Brazil became the 6th largest economy of the world surpassing the United Kingdom. Not coincidently, Brazil has been recently chosen as the host country for two significant global sports events: the World Cup soccer tournament in 2014; and the Olympic Games in 2016 in Rio de Janeiro. Those certainly have caused and will cause more media attention to the country and its culture.[28]

Education online October 05, 2009. Retrieved from http://chronicle.com/article/At-Texas-Flagship-Budget-Cut/48658/

[28] As mentioned above, this is the second time that Brazil hosts the soccer World Cup event. For the first time in 1950, there was also an increased interest in Brazil in the U.S.

While colleges and universities in the U.S. are willing to offer Portuguese language courses, the potential growth remains limited at this time. The reasons may vary, but one of them may be attributed to the conscious bureaucratic and economic problems in the process of implementation of a new language program in higher education. Recent research by Milleret (2010) points out that support and stability of Portuguese programs come first and foremost from the department chair; second from courses taught in other departments/cultural organizations; and third from the dean of the college, and/or a center or an institution. All those involve a fair amount of bureaucratic and resource availability issues that can prevent the rapid expansion of a FL program.

According to Klee (2000) and Welles (2004), the study of more traditional languages such as French, Spanish, and German accounted for 92% of the total enrollment in foreign language courses in the U.S. in 1960; in 1985, this figure declined to 85%. This parallels an increased interest in Portuguese language courses and other languages such as Chinese and Arabic. Klee's study also shows that the growth in enrollments for Chinese and Japanese is positive and consistent. Arabic, Italian, and Portuguese grew as well, but had some fluctuation. Registration for Spanish courses alone has increased significantly since 1969. Klee also states that colleges had to change their course offerings to keep up with the new demands for foreign language learning. For example, in the case of Portuguese, colleges and universities are motivated to implement Portuguese language and literature programs in the United States (Eakin & Almeida, 2005). However, to change the culture towards new languages in a well-established college or university may take several years, if not decades. Hence, new Portuguese language programs and courses are limited when compared to Spanish, which

is offered each semester as part of a more general and established Romance Languages department and/or Spanish and Portuguese department (Eakin & Almeida, 2005).

In the more recent period (2006-2009), there was an increase in enrollments in the more traditional languages: French 4.8%; German 2.2%; Italian 3%; Spanish 5.1%; while Portuguese increased by a greater amount, or 10.8%; see Furman et al. (2010).

I present the data for enrollments of Portuguese in the U.S. in more detail. Figure 2.1 shows a graph of the level of enrollments of Portuguese courses in the U.S. from 1983 to 2009. Overall, the trend is positive showing that enrollments have increased significantly in the sample period. There is significant growth from the 1980s to 1990 then some slower growth in the 1990s. However, in the 2000s, the growth in enrollments picks up significantly again.

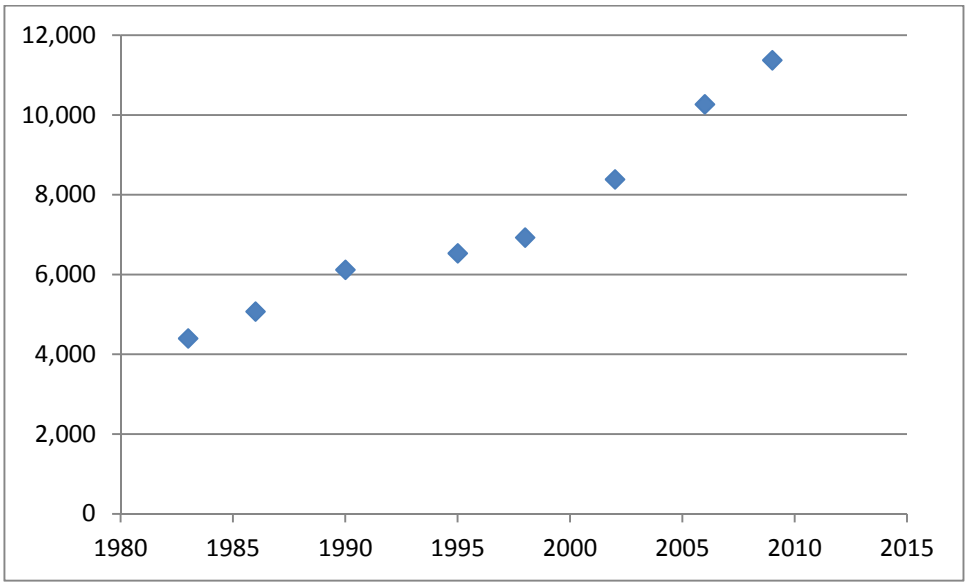

Figure 2.1: Portuguese enrollments in the entire U.S.- Number of students

Source: MLA Database

Table 2.1 below shows the level of enrollments in the U.S. in its entirety and by state of the union from 1983 to 2009.

Table 2.1

Portuguese Enrollments in the U.S.- Number of Students - Entire U.S. and By State

Year	1983	1986	1990	1995	1998	2002	2006	2009
Entire US	4,397	5,071	6,118	6,531	6,926	8,385	10,267	11,371
Alabama	23	74	44	29	12	25	18	29
Arizona	98	182	161	347	221	288	386	546
California	662	756	713	693	413	755	1,112	1,366
Colorado	22	20	22	14	52	50	97	308
Connecticut	56	39	73	64	111	70	123	71
Delaware	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	18
District of Columbia	126	104	144	102	129	158	204	202
Florida	134	193	223	262	288	528	686	581
Georgia	22	90	236	301	402	331	379	268
Hawaii	0	0	4	23	0	0	42	14
Idaho	0	0	0	0	0	25	0	0
Illinois	101	128	245	190	119	243	197	139
Indiana	98	69	113	185	623	476	249	266
Iowa	57	104	75	90	123	73	97	70
Kansas	25	51	44	26	22	57	74	82
Kentucky	5	7	0	0	0	0	43	20
Louisiana	75	32	21	28	47	82	82	74
Maine	19	0	6	8	4	4	7	0
Maryland	3	50	121	92	82	90	61	114
Massachusetts	384	522	532	598	687	976	1,304	1,059
Michigan	49	23	58	77	58	82	141	111
Minnesota	60	50	89	32	85	101	119	153
Mississippi	17	18	26	37	39	27	24	13
Missouri	42	19	64	15	19	41	80	66
Nebraska	41	49	39	0	32	37	0	0
Nevada	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	22
New Hampshire	11	37	19	6	34	36	63	19
New Jersey	80	66	87	84	196	288	434	421
New Mexico	77	105	109	75	100	122	163	166
New York	396	351	316	437	304	414	708	1,148
North Carolina	456	519	497	576	629	544	607	708
Ohio	67	40	130	91	74	99	192	182
Oklahoma	14	6	9	33	20	45	22	54
Oregon	15	0	17	21	14	31	0	142
Pennsylvania	86	172	172	132	167	174	231	220
Rhode Island	278	226	244	264	219	251	389	377
South Carolina	49	56	26	58	61	127	113	138
Tennessee	120	231	286	153	165	163	265	340
Texas	180	190	225	296	291	399	441	490
Utah	211	237	539	657	665	810	745	928
Vermont	4	0	7	9	23	49	34	94
Virginia	43	40	47	71	74	24	39	70
Washington	21	0	30	76	58	71	70	51
West Virginia	15	0	9	12	0	0	14	5
Wisconsin	155	215	296	267	264	219	192	209
Wyoming	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	17

Source: MLA Database.

Table 2.1 and Figure 2.1 above show that, in the entire U.S., Portuguese enrollments increased 2.6 times between 1983 and 2009. States like California, Massachusetts, New York, North Carolina, Texas and Utah (shaded in green in the table) showed some of the largest sustained levels of enrollments in the nation in this period. In some of those states, namely California, New York, and Texas, immigrant minorities are becoming a more significant percentage of the total population (McKay & Wong, 2000). Other states started from very low levels and increased dramatically, like Colorado and Vermont (shaded in light blue in the table). Yet another group of states has shown very little activity in Portuguese, for example Delaware, Idaho, Nevada and Wyoming (shaded in light red in the table).[29] The states of Delaware, Idaho and Wyoming have small immigrant population (Camarota, 2007). Overall, the picture is one where Portuguese enrollments have been increasing in the U.S. in the last three decades.

The information in Table 2.1 can be translated in terms of percentage changes from the previous period (Appendix B, Table B.1). For the entire U.S., I confirm the analysis of Figure 2.1. It shows that the growth of Portuguese in the 1980's was strong, between 15 and 20 percent. In the 1990's the growth was moderately lower, between 6.8 and 6 percent. It is in the early 2000's that the largest growth was observed, 21 and 22 percent up to 2006. Later in the decade, from 2006 to 2009, growth levels off to about 10 percent. The data show that it is in the early 2000s, the period of the emergence of the BRIC phenomenon, when the largest growth of Portuguese enrollments in the U.S. occurs.

[29] I can assume that a zero refers to no course being offered in that state.

The data also show that there are significant changes in enrollments by state. In the states with the largest sustained levels of enrollments, California, Massachusetts, New York, North Carolina, Texas and Utah, the changes are moderate, even though California shows relatively large increases in the early 2000s (82 and 47 percent). The states that started from low levels, say Colorado and Vermont, show much larger changes of the order of over 100 and 200 percent. Other states like Alabama and Oklahoma have shown increases of over 100 percent in some periods over the sample.

One important finding from Table 2.1 above is that in many states we observe a pattern of “stop-and-go” in enrollments. In one period there are enrollments, but in the subsequent period enrollments fall to zero (-100 percent change) where no courses are offered. Eventually, enrollments increase from zero to a positive number. This is the case for example in Kentucky, Maine, Nebraska, Oregon, and West Virginia where in some periods there are zero enrollments and other periods register positive enrollments. Overall Table 2.1 and Figure 2.1 show that Portuguese enrollments in the U.S. are active and changing mostly in the positive direction.

Summary and Reflections

This chapter gave an overview of events that directly and indirectly changed the perception and the inclusion of the study of foreign languages, such as Portuguese in higher education curriculum in the United States. In that context, my question in this chapter is basically whether foreign language education policy is influenced by politics in the United States. The answer is clearly yes. As discussed above, politics and economics play an important role in shaping the foreign language education in the U.S. Since colonial times, English has become the language of the land, and it has become a

dominant business language outside the United States. Still, in spite of the one-language-only vision, several factors motivate the U.S. government and educational institutions to invest in and support the teaching and learning of foreign languages; those include immigration, war, national security, and geopolitical, diplomatic and economic affairs. It is clear, therefore, that the times and circumstances determine the political demands for certain languages to be learned and to be funded.

The new millennium saw a more globalized world with a new agenda for education and business. This reinforced the need to learn foreign languages that are less commonly taught, such as Portuguese, Arabic, Japanese, and Chinese.

Inside the United States, immigrant minorities are becoming a more significant percentage of the total population in several states, including California, New York, Texas, Illinois, Florida, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts (McKay & Wong, 2000). This trend raises issues and dilemmas regarding language policies and politics as well as human rights. The fact is that language politics inside a country also depends upon international influences, both political and economic.

At the present time, universities, administrators, businesses, and institutions perceive the Portuguese language and Brazil as important and fundamental in the new globalized world. After World War II, the interest in learning Portuguese and Brazilian language and culture increased due to the relationships between the United States and Brazil. Ornstein (1950) states that Portuguese was offered for the first time in higher education in the period between 1826 and 1846 and by 1943 Portuguese was offered in approximately seventy-five universities. Ornstein (1950) also states that before World War II, universities focused on European Portuguese and the interest was in teaching the

Lusiadas.[30] However, during and after the war the interest shifted to Brazilian Portuguese, in part due to the Good Neighbor policy of President Roosevelt.

Another significant factor in history that may have increased awareness of PFL is the immigration from Portugal, the Azores and Cape Verdean islands to the United States in the 19th century (Solsten, 1993). In addition, since 1980, a large number of Brazilian immigrants started populating cities all over the United States (Margolis, 1994). The popular press in Brazil also highlighted the growing interest in Brazilian studies in the U.S., focusing not only on language and culture but also on other academic subjects (Buarque, 2009). Also, Portuguese courses have been connected to Latin American studies programs where the focus is partly on Brazil. Currently in 2011, Brazil has built up some momentum in academia in the U. S. in areas such as energy, climate change of the Amazon rainforest, and economic inequality. However, in terms of PFL it faces many challenges in terms of academic growth. Data in Table 2.1 show a stop-and-go pattern of enrollments in many U.S. states. Nevertheless, due to the increasing interest in Portuguese, new courses are devoted to Portuguese language and Lusophone literature (Eakin & Almeida, 2005).

In general, according to Ornstein (1950) the study of FL in the U.S. has evolved since World War II. Languages such as Brazilian Portuguese gained their places in FL education. The common theme that has helped increase interest in PFL in the U.S. is the dissemination of Brazilian culture.

The recent BRIC phenomenon may be a contributing factor in students' increasing interest in Brazilian-Portuguese and serves to further encourage colleges and

[30] The Lusiadas is a Portuguese epic poem written by Luis De Camões.

universities to offer Portuguese language courses, which give students options to choose from a larger menu of FL choices. They may now choose which language to study according to their own interests and motivation. The next chapter will focus on motivation in second language acquisition, where I show results of a survey that give information on why students in higher education are interested in taking Portuguese as a foreign language in the U.S.

Chapter Three - Motivation and Second Language Acquisition

Introduction

This chapter is a quantitative and hypothesis-generating study of students' motivation to learn PFL in the U.S. It is divided into three parts. In the first part I review the literature on the topic of motivation in FL learning. Several scholars have extensively researched motivation in FL learning in order to have a better sense of issues related to L2 and/or FL learning. In my research, I start with a literature review and use this review to understand and investigate why students are choosing Portuguese as a FL. As seen in the previous chapter, there are several potential reasons why governments and institutions choose to support and implement programs of FL. In this chapter, I follow up on the student side of the issue. The main question is what motivates students to study Portuguese. I highlight the main points that may affect foreign language acquisition and may have an influence on student's motivation.

The second part is dedicated to a quantitative analysis of the student's motivation to learn Portuguese as a FL in the U.S. I report results of the reasons that motivate students to take PFL in Higher Education from sample survey data.

The third part uses the hypothesis-generating research method. In particular, I carry out an analysis of a single case study of an older adult student of Portuguese as a FL. In this part, I also expand the literature review to better understand and interpret the participant's qualitative evidence.

Literature Review

Motivation is described as one of the factors that lead learners to achieve their educational goals. Motivation is a term used in a variety of ways to refer to the most

simple tasks in life as well as to more demanding ones such as the study of sciences, education, and applied linguistics (Dörnyei, Csizér & Néneth, 2006). The term also can be used to discuss foreign language learning (FLL).[31] According to Williams and Burden (1997), learning takes place when someone wants to learn something; but there is some motivation behind it. Although the word motivation is interpreted and used in many different ways, it is usually linked to a specific action and to specific factors such as interest, achieving a goal and curiosity. Moreover, Williams and Burden (1997) suggest that motivation will differ depending on different situations, circumstances and external factors.

Studies done on motivation are based on the work of Gardner and Lambert (1959) who studied foreign language learners in Canada, United States and the Philippines, within a social educational "psychological framework." Gardner and Lambert (1972) determine that factors such as attitude and motivation may affect language -learning success. In particular, the Gardner and Lambert (1972) study identified four kinds of motivation in learning: instrumental; integrative; resultative; and intrinsic. Instrumental motivation is the functional aspect of learning a second language. It is described as the learner's interest in a better academic or job placement or intellectual improvement. Integrative motivation is the learner's interest in the culture and the people representing the target language. Integrative motivation is linked to the learner's interest in the people and culture of the target community and their language. Several scholars interpret the

[31] Most studies in foreign language are based on the study of second language acquisition (SLA). Both terms deal with the learning and teaching of a non native language. This chapter will not make a distinction between FL and SL.

resultative motivation as related to achievement, meaning that a student's success is the motivation for further learning (Ellis, 1997; Williams, Burden, & Lanvers, 2002; Dörnyei, Csizér & Néneth, 2006). However, there could be reverse causation, meaning that motivation can change during the learning process. For example, students with difficulties in learning a second language may become less motivated. Intrinsic motivation is related to enjoyment and hobby, without any future specific goal.

Even though motivation has been described and identified as being a way to categorize and justify some aspects of the learner's success, it is still a very controversial and debatable aspect of SLA. As Dörnyei (1994) points out, Gardner's motivation model became a dominant model, and has, according to Crookes and Schmidt (1991) remained unchallenged by any recent alternative way to study motivation, resulting in an uneven picture and limiting possibilities. Another criticism of Gardner's measuring model by Crookes and Schmidt (1991) is that it does not involve cognitive aspects of motivation (p. 273). In earlier work, Schumann (1978, 1986) considers attitude as a social factor and views the environment as one of the factors which may influence learner's motivation. For example, the number of students in the classroom may play a role in increasing or decreasing motivation to learn a new language.

Schumann (1978, 1986) has put forward another view of motivation as an affective factor, which is related to culture shock; this shock may occur when students are exposed to a different language and culture. Furthermore, Williams and Burden (1997) state that learning a language "is more than grammar and rules; it involves an alteration in self-image, adoption of a new social and cultural behavior and way of being" (p.115). In addition, Crookall and Oxford (as cited in Williams & Burden, 1997) asserted that

learning a new language is like learning to be a different social being, and will therefore impact the learner's attitude. Brown (2000) also found that a learner's attitude might be influenced by the way they view the members of the "target language group." For example, the students may see the target language group positively or negatively, and according to Brown (2000) and Ortega (2009), the student's impression of the group's qualities and character, such as integrity, and whether the student perceives them as attractive or dull, may affect motivation and success in learning the language.

One of the factors that may affect motivation is age. Ellis (1985) states that language learners differ from each other in "age, learning style, aptitude, motivation and personality" (p. 99). The individual differences can affect the learners' success, motivation and attitude, which are among the most researched and debatable aspects of second language acquisition (SLA) and foreign language learning (FLL).

The debate that revolves around the issue of age in learning a second language grew from the assumption that SL acquisition is more effective among youngsters. However, research has shown that older learners can attain good and/or excellent proficiency in second or foreign language (Krashen et al, 1979; Marinova-Todd, Marshall & Snow, 2000; Moyer, 2004). There are many other factors that may have an impact on the way adults learn a second language over their entire lifespan; those include health, hearing loss, and any visual impairment. In addition, Bialystok and Hakuta (as cited in Sanz, 2005) state that the decline in cognitive capacity and the difficulty to "perform a task" (p. 110) in the limited classroom time frame count as factors that may affect a learners' success. When students need to give a quick response, they may feel under pressure; they may have difficulty with long-term retention and memory, or remembering

specific words. However, in many areas of SL and FL learning, such as in phonology, research regarding an adult learner success still shows contradictory results (Sanz, 2005).

Taking into account that learners differ in many aspects, including age, recent research related to age and language learning has shown important results. Kormos and Csizér (2008) conducted a research study entitled "Age-Related Differences in the Motivation of Learning English as a Foreign Language: Attitudes, Selves and Motivated Learning Behavior" where the focus was specifically on "the motivation for English as a second language in three distinct learner's population: secondary school, university students and adult language learners" (p. 327). The results show that environment and age must to be taken into consideration when theorizing SL and FL motivation. Their analysis shows that the three-age groups (secondary school, university students and adult language learners) had favorability and motivational temperament to learn a FL, but the older learners' group (university students and adult language learners) demonstrated higher motivational behavior. In effect, Kormos and Csizér (2008) suggest that the older learners' group invest more effort in language learning, and give more importance to language learning than the younger group of students (secondary school).

Summary I

The review above discussed research done in motivation in foreign language acquisition (FLA). Many researchers following Gardner and Lambert's (1959) study expanded their investigation suggesting that it is difficult to measure motivation as it is connected to many other confounding factors.

According to more recent studies done in the area of educational neuroscience there are neither biological nor cognitive impediments for adults and older adults to learn

a SL/FL. My own teaching experience of teaching Portuguese as a foreign language (PFL) to undergraduates and older adults contributes to my confidence in adult learner achievement.

The following sections aim to identify students' motivations for taking PFL in colleges and universities in the U.S. using quantitative and hypothesis-generating case study methods.

Survey Studies

In this section I will describe my quantitative study and my case study, which investigate what motivates students to take PFL. The quantitative study is based on a survey provided by Jouët-Pastré (2009) presented at the 2010 ACTFL Annual Convention and World Language Expo, Boston, Massachusetts, United States. The survey was conducted on undergraduate learners enrolled in Portuguese language classes in seven universities across the U.S. The basic survey of Jouët-Pastre, 2009 has 280 respondents (heritage and non-heritage speakers) from seven universities across the U.S. I use the sample of non-heritage speakers and the subsample of five universities in the Northeast region because there is only one university in the Southeast and one in the Southwest making the sample in those regions small. This makes my sample size 133 respondents. The focus on non-heritage speakers is due to my interest here in students who have no background connection to the language, and hence to not use it outside the classroom on a regular basis. The survey has a total of 13 questions answered by a sample of undergraduate students. My quantitative analysis focuses on one of the questions of the survey that examines motivation per se of non-heritage speakers.

In the case study I focus on one student that has background connection to Portuguese language. This second study is a hypothesis generating study. The main focus is to understand what motivates this particular student to take Portuguese classes and see if this in-depth study provides new reasons for students' motivation or confirms the reasons found in the survey.

The Quantitative Evidence: Survey Data and Analysis

In Jouët-Pastre, 2009 survey, the question that examines motivation per se of non-heritage speakers is as follows:[32]

> "What motivated you to take Portuguese classes? Please, rate the relative importance of your choice for all items."

A total of 20 alternative reasons were proposed for students to rate their relative importance, denoted A-T in Table 3.1.

[32] This is question 13 in the survey.

Table 3.1

Alternative Reasons to Take a Portuguese Class

Reason:
A. To fulfill my university language requirement
B. My parents encouraged me to take it
C. My friends are taking it
D. I traveled to a Portuguese speaking country
E. My interest in Portuguese culture
F. My interest in Brazilian culture
G. My interest in Portuguese-speaking African cultures
H. I participated in an activity related to Portuguese-speaking countries
I. I have a personal connection to Portugal, Brazil, etc. through family/friends
J. I plan on studying abroad in a Portuguese-speaking country
K. I plan to travel in a Portuguese-speaking country
L. My general interest in learning different languages
M. I am already familiar with Spanish
N. It is a skill I will need for my professional goals
O. It will help me to understand Portuguese-speaking immigrants and their way of life
P. It will permit me to become an influential member of my community
Q. It will permit me to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups
R. It will help me if I ever enter politics
S. It will help me to learn about myself
T. I thought it was different from the standard foreign language choice

The idea is that students are motivated to take language courses for a variety of different reasons. Students could rate one of the four levels of importance for each of the reasons: *Not Important*, *Somewhat Important*, *Important* and *Very Important*. In order to make the comparisons sharper, I focus on the two extreme reasons: *Very Important* and *Not Important*.

My quantitative analysis of the sample is based on making several calculations.[33] As noted, Table 3.1 gives 20 alternative reasons available for students to rate *Very*

[33] The calculations are based on my class notes and materials for Statistics: Quantitative Methods I – Statistics for Research, Prof. R. Blakeslee, Fall 2007.

Important and *Not Important*. First, to obtain the proportion of students who rated either *Very Important* or *Not Important*, I calculate, for each reason noted A-T in Table 3.1, the proportion of students, relative to the total in that university, who rated the one or another as the reason for taking the class in the university. For example, in one of the universities in the Northeast, we have:

Table 3.2

Example of Calculation of Proportions

Non-Heritage Speakers		40
Reason:		
A: To fulfill my university language requirement		
Rate:	Very Important	5
Proportion:	5 divided by 40	13%

There are 40 Non-Heritage speakers surveyed and five of them rated the reason "A: To fulfill my university language requirement" as *Very Important*. Then, the proportion in this case is five divided by 40, resulting in a proportion equal to 0.13, or 13%. That is, in this university 13% of the non-heritage speaker students found that "fulfilling a language requirement" was a *Very Important* reason to take the Portuguese class.

After making the calculation above for every reason A-T in each of the five universities in the sample, I compute the simple average of the proportions for *Very Important* and *Not Important* in the five universities in the sample. This provides an average estimate of the proportion of non-heritage speaker students who rate each of the reasons A to T as *Very Important* and *Not Important*. This is summarized in Table 3.3

where the columns give the estimate of the proportion of non-heritage speaker students who rate each of the reasons A to T as *Very Important* and *Not Important*.

Table 3.3

Calculation of Proportions

Reason:	Very Important	Not Important
A. To fulfill my university language requirement	13%	62%
B. My parents encouraged me to take it	7%	84%
C. My friends are taking it	2%	81%
D. I traveled to a Portuguese speaking country	7%	81%
E. My interest in Portuguese culture	9%	32%
F. My interest in Brazilian culture	38%	15%
G. My interest in Portuguese-speaking African cultures	11%	41%
H. I participated in an activity related to Portuguese-speaking countries	5%	70%
I. I have a personal connection to Portugal, Brazil, etc. through family/friends	16%	49%
J. I plan on studying abroad in a Portuguese-speaking country	18%	57%
K. I plan to travel in a Portuguese-speaking country	40%	15%
L. My general interest in learning different languages	47%	1%
M. I am already familiar with Spanish	27%	28%
N. It is a skill I will need for my professional goals	22%	23%
O. It will help me to understand Portuguese-speaking immigrants and their way of life	14%	34%
P. It will permit me to become an influential member of my community	10%	54%
Q. It will permit me to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups	13%	32%
R. It will help me if I ever enter politics	6%	69%
S. It will help me to learn about myself	10%	46%
T. I thought it was different from the standard foreign language choice	13%	41%
Average	16%	46%

The last row of Table 3.3 denoted Average (repeated here for easiness of exposition)

Reason:	Very Important	Not Important
Average (A to T)	16%	46%

gives the estimate of the proportion of non-heritage speaker students who rate reasons A to T as *Very Important* and *Not Important*. Note that as a whole, on average, students found the reasons to be *Not Important* at a 46% average, much higher than *Very Important* at a 16% average.

In summary, the steps to obtain the estimated proportions are:

1. I calculate, for each reason noted A-T, the proportion of students, relative to the total in that university, who rated *Very Important* and *Not Important* as the reason for taking the class in the university as in Table 3.2.
2. Next, I calculate the simple average of the proportions in 1. for the five universities in the sample as in Table 3.3.

My criteria for evaluation is to take the main “Very Important” reasons that are above the average and check for consistency with ratings that are below the average for the “Not Important” rating. In Table 3.4 the top “Very Important” ratings results are ranked by the criteria.

Table 3.4

Northeast Top Rated Reasons

Northeast Universities in the Sample		
	Very Important	Not Important
Reason:		
L. My general interest in learning different languages	0.47	0.01
K. I plan to travel in a Portuguese-speaking country	0.40	0.15
F. My interest in Brazilian culture	0.38	0.15
M. I am already familiar with Spanish	*0.27*	*0.28*
N. It is a skill I will need for my professional goals	*0.22*	*0.23*

Notes: The total number of Universities is 5

The top three "Very Important " factors that explain the motivation for taking a Portuguese class, by non-heritage speakers in the five universities in the Northeast in the sample underlined in Table 3.4 are:

L. My general interest in learning different languages (47%);

K. I plan to travel in a Portuguese-speaking country (40%);

F. My interest in Brazilian culture (38%);

We note that reason "F. My interest in Brazilian culture," has a 38% "Very Important" rating, which is well above the 16% average of this column in Table 3.3. At the same time the reason "F. My interest in Brazilian culture," has a 15% "Not Important" rating, which is well below the 46% average of this column in Table 3.3. This latter gives my check for consistency. Thus, I conclude that this is a *Very Important* reason for a majority of students and consistent with very few students rating it *Not Important*.

All three categories above satisfy the criteria since the "Not Important" ratings are below the average in Table 3.3 and very low indeed. In effect, since question L. has the

highest proportion of students rating it *Very Important*, I can conclude that the main reason that motivates students in this sample is the interest in learning different languages, which may be associated with the other top reasons given by plans to travel in a Portuguese-speaking country and/or interest in Brazilian culture. The results fit the instrumental and integrative motives that may be attributed to the desire of becoming a more knowledgeable person and to facilitate travel to the target language.

There are two other factors that are rated above the 16% "Very Important" average, but not as highly as the three top ones, and are rated below the average in the "Not Important" column, indicating consistentency. Those are in italics in Table 3.4:

M. I am already familiar with Spanish (27%)

N. It is a skill I will need for my professional goals (22%)

The second set of "Very Important" factors shows that an important reason to motivate students is familiarity with Spanish associated with professional objectives. Those also fit the instrumental motive of professional advancement. The evidence clearly shows that individuality plays a crucial role in motivating students to learn Portuguese as a foreign language (PFL).

Several other reasons are low rated and shown in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5

Northeast Low Rated Reasons

Northeast Universities in the Sample		
	Very Important	Not Important
Reason:		
J. I plan on studying abroad in a Portuguese-speaking country	0.18	0.57
I. I have a personal connection to Portugal, Brazil, etc. through family/friends	0.16	0.49
O. It will help me to understand Portuguese-speaking immigrants and their way of life	0.14	0.34
A. To fulfill my university language requirement	0.13	0.62
Q. It will permit me to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups	0.13	0.32
T. I thought it was different from the standard foreign language choice	0.13	0.41
G. My interest in Portuguese-speaking African cultures	0.11	0.41
P. It will permit me to become an influential member of my community	0.10	0.54
S. It will help me to learn about myself	0.10	0.46
E. My interest in Portuguese culture	0.09	0.32
B. My parents encouraged me to take it	0.07	0.84
D. I traveled to a Portuguese speaking country	0.07	0.81
R. It will help me if I ever enter politics	0.06	0.69
H. I participated in an activity related to Portuguese-speaking countries	0.05	0.70
C. My friends are taking it	0.02	0.81

Note: The total number of Universities is 5

Figure 3.1 below gives a graphic view of the results (circles represent the highest ratings) and confirms the evidence of Table 3.4. Furthermore, it illustrates that students rate the top three “Not Important” factors as:

B. My parents encouraged me to take it (84%)

C. My friends are taking it (81%)

D. I traveled to a Portuguese speaking country (81%).

It shows that family and peer influence are not deemed important in motivating students to take Portuguese classes in the the Northeast of the U.S., moreover past travels

are also not important. Since my sample is of non-heritage speakers, the result that family is deemed not important was expected.

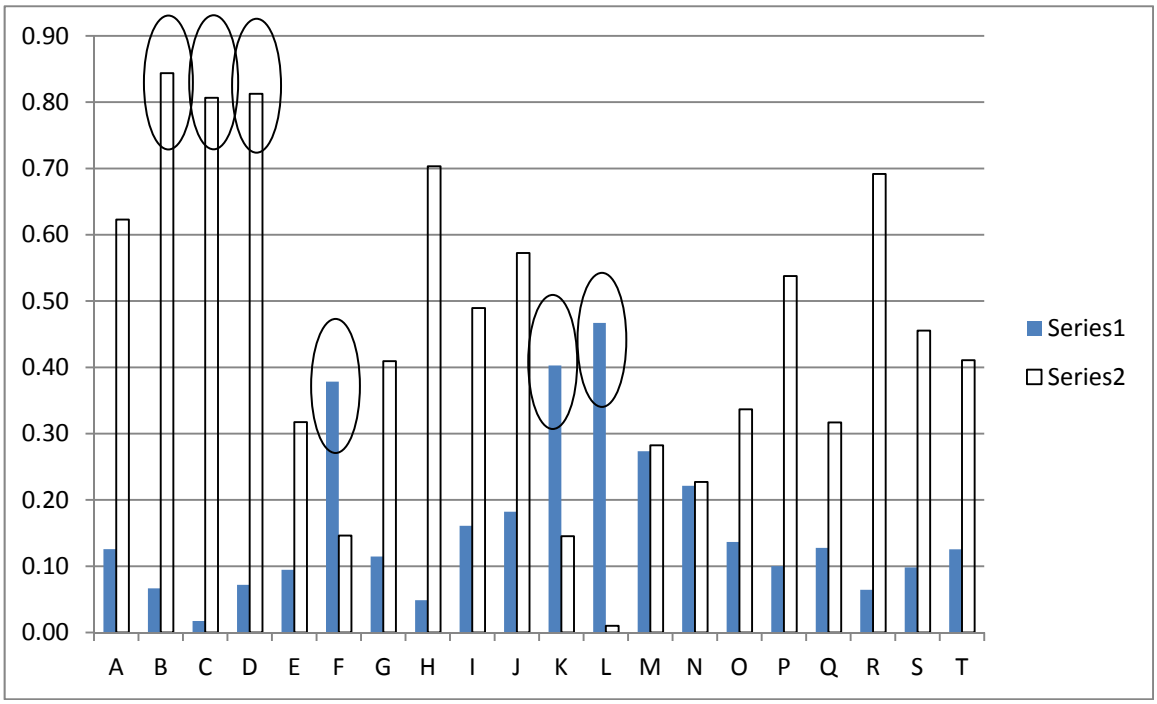

Figure 3.1: Northeast universities in the sample. Vertical axis: Proportion of respondents in the class. Series 1: Very important. Series 2: Not important

The Quantitative Evidence: Conclusion

In this survey, I investigated 133 non-heritage undergraduate students in five universities in the Northeast of the U.S. From the results one can conclude that the participants in this survey are highly motivated to study PFL for different reasons. This is not surprising because colleges do not require students to take one specific language, therefore, the students self-selected into the Portuguese language courses.

The most important reasons that motivate students to take PFL are general interest in learning different languages, plans to travel in a Portuguese-speaking country, interest in Brazilian culture, familiarity with Spanish, and a skill needed for professional goals; in

this order. Those are all instrumental and integrative motives that may be attributed to the desire of becoming a more knowledgeable person and to facilitate travel to the target language. If we were to profile a non-heritage learner of Portuguese in this sample, it would be someone with a curious, inquisitive mind to seek further knowledge and professional goals, interested in travel and study abroad. The next part of my research in motivation uses a hypothesis-generating study of one student's motivation to complement the quantitative study.

Hypothesis-Generating Case Study Research

For this case study I interviewed Amanda, 32 years old, who has a full time administrative job at a local university, and was one of my students in the Portuguese course I teach once a week in the evening. When I interviewed Amanda[34] she had already taken one year of PFL, which corresponds to two full semester courses. She attended the first and second semester of the beginners sequence that meets once a week for two hours and explores not only questions of language – reading; writing; speaking; listening - but perhaps most importantly, explores the cultural issues.

The interview took place when the participant was at the end of her second semester of Portuguese in the academic year 2007-2008. The interview was conducted in English and the questions were formulated to investigate "Motivation" and Attitude" in second language/ foreign language acquisition including *integrative and instrumental* motivations study initially theorized by Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972). I analyze Amanda's answers based on theories and research previously reviewed on motivation

[34] To preserve the student's privacy and identity her real name is not disclosed in this study.

earlier in this chapter. This study is a hypothesis generating research using the grounded theory method, given the fact that I only have one participante and data was collected through a questionnaire (question and answer). Therefore, the case study presented in this chapter is based on a questionnaire survey, completed as face-to-face interview, email exchanges.

Moreover, this case study is an attempt to explore the reasons and the motivations that led Amanda to take the PFL class and to add texture, depth and insight to the survey analysis.

During the interview, I took the opportunity to ask more direct questions, and most importantly I had the opportunity to engage in follow up questions,[35] as well as to further explore her motivation according to her background. Therefore, this case study focuses on the analysis of Amanda's answers and her own assessment of her accomplishments in PFL; I also discuss FLA as it relates to speaker's learning style, motivation, and her future intentions towards the Portuguese language learning process and use.

The Participant

Amanda was randomly selected among 17 students in a PFL course. During the interview I came across the fact that Amanda is a Cape-Verdean descendant, who, according to her own account, had never learned Cape-Verdean Creole[36] or Portuguese

[35] This allowed me to complement my quantitative analysis above with follow up questions, which could provide more insight to the results I obtained through the quantitative survey.

[36] Portuguese is the official language of Cape Verde and Creole is the national language.

and had just recently started learning Portuguese. Immediately, this information made me believe that this fact would be her main motivation to study Portuguese and that I could make a connection with heritage language learner. However, according to Valdés (2001) a heritage learner is someone who belongs to a family which does not speak English at home, and who has been exposed to both the non-English and English language. This concept does not qualify Amanda as a heritage learner and her interview below will clarify her motivation to study Portuguese.

The Interview

The interview occurred after the first two semester courses and subsequently Amanda took two more courses of PFL, where I continued to be her instructor. Thus, after interviewing and teaching Amanda for four consecutive semesters, she distinguished herself as a student who constantly posed questions to clarify any point not understood during the class. Amanda's clarification questions were placed either during class or through e-mails or when approaching me, before and after class.

Interview and Analysis

Question 1:

Interviewer: Why are you taking Portuguese?

> Participant: "Primarily, I am taking Portuguese because I am involved in worldwide bible education work and currently there is a need here in the local area because of all the Brazilian and Cape Verdean immigrants. Also I have developed a deeper interest in the language and hopefully can excel to the point of widening out employment possibilities and helping in areas such as medical or literary translation or even perhaps teaching Portuguese in elementary schools as

> there is such a shortage of foreign language teachers. I decided to learn Portuguese in order to be able to communicate with the people from my church. I belong to a Portuguese congregation and I want to learn the language and the Portuguese culture."

According to her answer, her main motivation is to learn a new language and become a more active participant and citizen in her religious congregation. In learning Portuguese, she intends to reach out and teach the Bible to immigrants from the Portuguese-speaking world. There is also a potential professional reason as "she may want to teach it…" which well illustrates what Gardner and Lambert (1972) call instrumental and integrative motivation. Amanda indicates her desire to be part of a specific community, a *community of practice,* where the Portuguese language is an important component of social participation, allowing her to identify herself as a full participant and member of her particular social group. Lave and Wenger (1991) in their theory of a *situated learner,* identify a group of people sharing the same interests and commitments, a *community of practice*. This includes book groups, sports clubs, bands, professions and numerous other organizations. In Amanda's case it is a church congregation, reading the Bible. According to Lave and Wenger (1991), the newer participant in the community learns at the periphery. In other words, the participation of the newcomer is limited according to his/her ability, when the participant/learner became more integrated and competent, the participant /learner moves to the center of the community. Using the community of practice theory in Amanda's case, we can conclude that as she becomes more fluent in Portuguese, she can advance to the center, have more responsibilities and eventually

teach the Bible. In this context, for Amanda, learning Portuguese is more than learning the language, it is a process of social participation (see Wenger, 2005).

Question 2:

Interviewer: Have you grown up in a household that spoke any language other than English?

Participant: “No, unfortunately I did not.”

Question 3:

Interviewer: Have you learned another language before?

Participant: “Yes, I took Spanish classes starting in 7th grade up until 11th grade. Then I took a year of Russian when I was a senior in high school.”

The responses in questions two and three show that even though Amanda is part of the Cape-Verdean diasporas, as stated previously, according to Valdés’s definition of a heritage speaker she will not be studied as a heritage learner in this study. Amanda grew up neither listening to nor speaking another language. However, she was exposed to Spanish and Russian foreign languages in middle and high school before enrolling in a Portuguese language class.

Question 4:

Interviewer: How many languages are you able to speak?

Participant: “At present I speak only a little Portuguese besides English.”

Question 5:

Interviewer: What is your biggest challenge when learning a language?

> Participant: “Putting the time into it, scheduling the time to focus on it.
>
> Also it is difficult for me to memorize a lot of things.”

I often say to my students what my English teacher used to tell me, “mastering a foreign language takes time and dedication.” My own experience as an adult learner of English taught me that learning a foreign language is an extremely time consuming process. In addition to this complex and slow paced characteristic of second language and foreign language learning, which tends to have an impact on learners of all ages, adults usually have full time jobs and/or family responsibilities. This may further slow down the learning process. As an adult learner who has a full time job, Amanda has limited time to dedicate attention to her studies, and that may interfere with her learning process. The fact that Amanda claims that she speaks a “little Portuguese” could be interpreted as a lack of confidence or modesty because she already stated that she belongs to a Portuguese church, where most of the participants speak Portuguese, and interacts with other members of its community.

Question 6:

Interviewer: How is your learning style?

> Participant: “I usually learn best by looking at words and seeing things visually – looking at pictures as well.”

The participant’s answer for question 6 describes her learning style as a visual learner, who prefers the information to be presented in pictures, charts, films and/or flash cards (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Reid (1995) (as cited in Lightbown & Spada, 2006), and

Oxford (2001) describe individual learning characteristics and ways to retain new information and skills. There are seven kinds of learning styles: visual (spatial), aural (auditory-musical), verbal (linguistic), physical (kinesthetic), logical (mathematical), social (interpersonal) and solitary (intrapersonal).[37]

After teaching for several consecutive years, I observed that it is very important for students as well as teachers to be aware of their own learning characteristics and preferences, and this ultimately allows the instructor to better prepare classes. In this case, the participant is aware of her own learning style, the visual style, which can be used as a tool for her own learning goals. I agree with Knowles (1980) who states that older students can use their own learning style to reach their learning goals, ultimately becoming independent learners.

Question 7:

Interviewer: What is your motivation?

Participant: "I really want to speak another language and speak it well. I think it is an incredible accomplishment and I know that if I can master the language it will be useful to not only myself but so many others as well."

The answer to Question 7 reaffirms her motivation and describes her positive attitude towards learning Portuguese. She wants to be able to speak it well, and to feel proud and rewarded in mastering the foreign language. She also demonstrates a real need to communicate in "Português." The participant uses the word in Portuguese to emphasize her goal of becoming fluent in Portuguese. This statement shows that she is committed to be part of the Portuguese speaking religious community.

[37] Retrieved from http://www.learning-styles-online.com/overview/

Question 8:

Interviewer: Do you think that the role of a teacher is important in your learning progress?

Participant: “Yes, I do, although I know many people feel otherwise.”

Interviewer: Why?

> Participant: “Well I definitely feel there are many different ways to learn a new language and self-learning is a part of it. But having an instructor to help motivate, provide structure and give encouragement is really helpful in the process. Also an instructor brings experience and cultural knowledge that sometimes cannot be learned by merely reading a book about the grammar and vocabulary of a language.”

Dornyei (1994) states that teaching methods, materials and teachers’ attitude play an important role in motivating students. As the participant states, language is much more than a structure, a set of rules and a vocabulary list to be memorized. Language is intimately intertwined with culture (Kramch, 1998), and the teacher could play an invaluable role in pointing out this crucial aspect of language learning. Teachers’ contribution in the classroom may lead to more motivation to learn. An effective teacher can give positive input, feedback and provide an intercultural exchange.

Question 9:

Interviewer: Have you had a time when you thought of giving up on the language you were learning?

Participant: Absolutely!

Interviewer: Why?

Participant: "There are times when it is just plain frustrating. I am learning how to read and write well but speaking has come more slowly. Sometimes I want to express myself but do not feel I can or sometimes I compare myself to others and feel my progress is not where it should be."

According to McLaughlin (1992), it can be harder for older learners to pronounce with a native accent in a second language because it involves "motor patterns" that have been fossilized in the first language. This may be difficult to change after a certain age, because of the nature of the neurophysiologic mechanisms involved. It may as well be that we do not understand very well how to teach phonology in a second language" (McLaughlin, p.3).[38]

[38] Adults can also experience a "tip-of-the-tongue" phenomenon (TOT), which is described as a decrease in the connection between the lexical and phonological, where the speaker is temporarily unable to retrieve the full phonological production for a word that they know and have used many times before (Schuls & Elliott, 2000, Burcke & Shafto, 2004, Taylor & Mackay, 2003).

Another hypothesis that can be attributed to her answer is the "affective filter," one of Krashen's five hypotheses [39] previously known as the "Monitor Model" and more recently known as the "Input Hypothesis." Brown (2000) describes the "affective filter" as related to feelings, motives, needs, attitudes, and emotional states. Anxiety in SLA/FLL has been studied among scholars who concluded that it has a negative impact on the learner (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991, Oxford, 1999**,** Horwitz, 2001). This negative feeling can affect learner's motivation.

Hypothesis-Generating Case Study Research: Conclusions

According to Amanda's interview, she can be considered a very motivated student with specific needs and goals. Her motivation to learn PFL is based on communication purposes as well as religious and community goals, and a possible professional goal.

The interview above reveals Amanda as an adult language learner, who can experience anxiety, time constraint and non-native pronunciation concerns that are commonly researched in her age group. Amanda's motivation and her willingness to communicate can overcome her frustration. On the other hand, her occasional anxiety can provoke some frustration and may activate her "affective filter" (Krashen, 1992).

The literature in SLA/FLL presented in this chapter suggests that the learner's individuality, such as motivation, attitude, intelligence, cognitive style and personality play an important role in the process of learning a second language. Amanda

[39] Krahsen's five hypotheses are: 1. The acquisition-learning hypothesis; 2. The monitor hypothesis; 3. The natural order hypothesis; 4. The input hypothesis; 5. The affective filter hypothesis.

demonstrates that the main driving force that motivates her to pursue her goal of learning Portuguese is her desire to participate in a specific community.

Summary and Conclusions

In this chapter, first I reviewed that motivation has been an important part of foreign language teaching and learning. Gardner and Lambert's work (1972) has exerted key influence on researchers in this area and provided the basis for further investigation about learners' motivation.

I presented a quantitative analysis of a survey focused on undergraduate students in five universities in the northeast of the United States, which identified the reasons that motivate students to take Portuguese as a foreign language. My quantitative analysis focuses on one of the questions of the survey that examines motivation per se of non-heritage speakers. There are a total of 133 non-heritage speakers who responded to the questionnaire when taking a Portuguese class in five universities in the Northeast of the U.S.

I found that the most important reasons that motivate students to take PFL are general interest in learning different languages, plans to travel in a Portuguese-speaking country, interest in Brazilian culture, familiarity with Spanish, when the language is a skill needed to reach professional goals. The motives above are all instrumental and integrative motives that may be attributed to the desire of becoming a more knowledgeable person and to facilitate travel to countries where the target language is spoken. Based on my review of the literature, the integrative motivation is the learner's interest in the culture and interest in the people representing the target language while the

instrumental motivation is described as the learner's interest in a better academic or job placement (Gardner & Lambert, 1972).

Next, I presented a hypothesis-generating analysis of an interview of a student of PFL. In this study, I analyzed each answer according to the theory of motivation presented in the first part of this chapter and expanded on the literature to explain the main findings.

The student can be considered to be a very motivated student with specific needs and goals. Her motivation to learn a second language is based on communication purposes as well as religion and a possible professional goal. Her willingness to communicate can overcome her frustration. On the other hand, her occasional anxiety can provoke some frustration and may activate her "affective filter" (Krashen, 1992).

This review and research analysis about motivation in this chapter leads me to conclude that motivation is indeed one of, if not the most important, driving forces in language learning. While investigating students' motivation and success, researchers suggest that we should also consider student's individuality, environment and learning style. The students in my quantitative study are interested in learning PFL due to their plans to travel in a Portuguese-speaking country and/or interest in the Brazilian culture as well as increasing job opportunities. The student in my case study was learning PFL to be better integrated in a Portuguese religious community as a more active participant using the target language as well as to seek better job opportunities, among other things. This finding provides a new reason to motivate the learning of PFL beyond all the reasons considered in the quantitative research above.

Understanding motivation is fruitful to understanding the expansion of foreign languages relative to other foreign languages. My results show that in the case of PFL in the U.S. plans to travel in a Portuguese-speaking country, interest in the Brazilian culture, increasing job opportunities and integration in a Portuguese religious community play a significant role in explaining motivation to take PFL courses. Those can serve as working hypothesis for future work in his area.

However, an important element in the fabric of PFL in the U.S. is the faculty who teaches it. Investigating who learns PFL and identifying reasons that motivate them to reach their goals leads me to investigate the faculty involved in teaching PFL.[40] The next chapter is dedicated to the investigation of who is currently teaching PFL in the U.S.

[40] As a personal note, I am well aware that the faculty is a crucial part of the development and success of a Portuguese program in a college in the U.S.

Chapter Four - Who is teaching Portuguese? Profile of Portuguese Teachers

As stated in the introductory chapter, this dissertation seeks to investigate the status of PFL in the U.S. In chapter two, I reviewed some important aspects of language politics in the United States regarding the studies of foreign language as well as world events that contributed to the increased interest in the studies of Portuguese as a foreign language in the U.S. In chapter three, I engaged in the analyses of a survey of students' motivation to learn Portuguese. In this chapter, I investigate who is teaching PFL in the U.S. using a survey-based approach. I analyze the data collected in a survey I designed entitled "Who is teaching Portuguese as a foreign language in the U.S.?" The main purpose here is to examine teachers' qualifications in the field of Portuguese as a foreign language, such as their educational background, degree level, training and experience as well as their current employment situation.

Introduction

Teachers in general are required to demonstrate ability to perform according to certain standards that can be acquired through some years of study and appropriate training. In 1997, Peyton (Peyton, 1997) stated that the foreign language teacher profession was experiencing difficulties due to increased interest in language classes and low number of qualified professionals in the field. However, the demand for foreign language teachers generated the necessity for more specialization and training and more qualified teachers. At the present time, with the increased interest and enrollments in Portuguese programs across the U.S., (shown in chapter two), we can assume that Portuguese as a foreign language is also in great need of qualified professionals to contribute to the growth of the Portuguese programs in higher education in the U.S.

According to the ACTFL, foreign language teaching training should include the following eight components and characteristics:[41]

1. The development of candidates' foreign language proficiency in all areas of communication, with special emphasis on developing oral proficiency, in all language courses. Upper-level courses should be taught in the foreign language.
2. An ongoing assessment of candidates' oral proficiency and provision of diagnostic feedback to candidates concerning their progress in meeting required levels of proficiency.
3. Language, linguistics, culture, and literature components.
4. A methods course that deals specifically with the teaching of foreign languages, and that is taught by a qualified faculty member whose expertise is foreign language education and who is knowledgeable about current instructional approaches and issues.
5. Field experiences prior to student teaching that include experiences in foreign language classrooms.
6. Field experiences, including student teaching, that are supervised by a qualified foreign language educator who is knowledgeable about current instructional approaches and issues in the field of foreign language education.

[41] Prepared by the Foreign Language Teacher Standards Writing Team August 1, 2002 Approved By The Specialty Areas Studies Board National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. October 19, 2002. Retrieved from http://www.actfl.org/files/public/ACTFLNCATEStandardsRevised713.pdf

7. Opportunities for candidates to experience technology-enhanced instruction and to use technology in their own teaching.
8. Opportunities for candidates to participate in a structured study abroad program and/or intensive immersion experience in a target language community.

The components and characteristics above have been conceived as a joint effort of nine foreign language associations with the support of the Modern Language Association (MLA).[42] Hence, it is also important to examine the profile of Portuguese language teachers in the U.S. taking into account the components and characteristics provided above.

The Survey

The survey is designed to investigate who is currently teaching Portuguese as a foreign language in higher education in the U.S. This study has a sample of 24 individuals who responded to the questionnaire in late 2010 and early 2011. The sample

[42] The nine foreign language associations are: The American Association of Teachers of French (AATF); the American Association of Teachers of German (AATG); the American Association of Teachers of Italian (AATI); the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese (AATSP); the American Classical League (ACL); the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL); the American Council of Teachers of Russian (ACTR); the Chinese Language Association of Secondary- Elementary Schools (CLASS), the Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA), the National Council of Japanese Language Teachers (NCJLT); and the Association of Teachers of Japanese (ATJ). (ACTFL Report, 2002).

includes professionals from universities across the U.S., in states including Illinois, California, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Massachusetts and the District of Columbia (Washington, DC).[43] My survey emphasizes individual profile, demographics, training, and educational level. I provide evidence of how the faculty teaching Portuguese in higher education in the U.S. value training and experience and show that training and experience are seen as complements to one another. I also examine how the characteristics of the faculty relate to each other. I show that in general teachers with full-time positions tend not to teach other languages. Also attending professional development is positively related to having had another job before teaching Portuguese.

My survey complements the recent survey by Milleret (2010) that focuses on demographics, enrollment figures, characteristics of Portuguese degree programs, characteristics of students, characteristics of teaching staff, support and stability of programs, and factors influencing growth or reduction in the Portuguese language program. I compare my results to some of Milleret's (2010) results when applicable.

Research Design and Methodology

For this research I surveyed Portuguese language faculty currently teaching in the higher education system in the U.S. The line of inquiry focuses on professional profile, demographics, educational background and other characteristics such as previous occupation and background information. I gathered a sample of 24 individuals who answered the questionnaire. Some of the questionnaires were distributed during a language conference and others were e-mailed to Portuguese and/or Spanish and Portuguese departments in U.S. universities. Overall, I distributed 30 questionnaires and

[43] The survey was formally approved by the IRB of Lesley University; Appendix A.

24 of the 30 were filled out and sent back to me by February 2011. Therefore, I had an 80% response to the survey.

Data Analysis

The data analysis separates the questionnaire into several parts including individual profile, demographics, educational background and teaching, training and general characteristics. I proceed analyzing each part.

Individual profile

Table 4.1 indicates below that the majority of the surveyed are Brazilian born (58%), while 37% are U.S. born, and one is Argentinean.

Table 4.1

Where were you born? (Q1)

	Number	Percent
Brazil	14	58.3%
U.S.	9	37.5%
Argentina	1	4.2%
Total	24	100%

The results in Table 4.1 are in accordance to the results of Milleret (2010), even though in her sample the majority of Brazilian born faculty is not as overwhelming as in my sample.

Table 4.2 shows the gender mix of the sample. The majority, 83% are female and only 17% are male in this field.

Table 4.2

What is your gender? (Q3)

	Number	Percent
Male	4	16.7%
Female	20	83.3%
Total	24	100%

Table 4.3 below shows the age profile of the faculty surveyed. The majority is between 30 and 50 years of age. Only about 12% are either younger than 30 years of age, or older than 50 years of age; while the remaining 75% are evenly divided between 30 and 40, and 40 and 50 years of age.

Table 4.3

What is your current age? (Q4)

	Number	Percent
20 to 30	3	12.5%
More than 30 to 40	9	37.5%
More than 40 to 50	9	37.5%
More than 50	3	12.5%
Total	24	100%

The evidence from Tables 4.1-4.3 is that the majority of the current Portuguese faculty in higher education are middle aged female Brazilians. In the recent survey of Milleret (2010), she also found that the majority of lecturers and part-time teaching staff are Brazilian born, but at the tenure track level the majority are U.S. born.

Demographics

In Table 4.4 we can see that about 70% of the surveyed faculty has lived outside of the US. In Table 4.5 we observe that 47% lived in Brazil, which confirms the majority of Brazilians in Table 4.1 above. However, Table 4.5 shows that there are a variety of other experiences abroad including Europe, Central America and Asia.

Table 4.4

Have you lived in any other country, other than the U.S.? (Q2)

	Number	Percent
Yes	17	70.8%
No	6	25.0%
NA*	1	4.2%
Total	24	100%

*NA is no answer.

Table 4.5

Distribution by country

	Number	Percent
Brazil	9	47.4%
Portugal	1	5.3%
Singapore	1	5.3%
U.K.	1	5.3%
France	1	5.3%
Mexico	1	5.3%
Costa Rica	1	5.3%
Dominican Republic	1	5.3%
Switzerland	1	5.3%
Peru	1	5.3%
Honduras	1	5.3%
Total*	19	100%

*Two individuals lived in more than one other country.

One important conclusion to draw from Tables 4.4 and 4.5 is that the faculty in this survey fulfills the ACTFL components and characteristics 3 and 8 listed below, because

they are native speakers and have lived in the country of target language. Therefore, they have intercultural competence.

ACTFL components and characteristics 3 and 8 are:

3. Language, linguistics, culture, and literature components.
8. Opportunities for candidates to participate in a structured study abroad program and/or intensive immersion experience in a target language community.

Table 4.6 below shows that 37% of the surveyed faculty has lived in the U.S. more than 15 to 20 years; 20% has lived in the U.S. more than 5 to 10 years; and an equal percentage of 20% lived in the U.S. more than 10 to 15 years. Overall, the group has been in the U.S. between 5 to 20 years, which shows that this is a relatively recent academic migration.

Table 4.6

How long have you lived in the U.S.? (Q5)

	Number	Percent
1 to 5 years	1	4.2%
More than 5 years to 10 years	5	20.8%
More than 10 years to 15 years	5	20.8%
More than 15 to 20 years	9	37.5%
More than 20 to 25 years	1	4.2%
More than 25 to 30 years	1	4.2%
More than 30 years	2	8.3%
Total	24	100%

Tables 4.4-4.6 show that about half of the faculty who has had an experience of living abroad, lived in Brazil; but the other half has had a diverse set of experiences. The

overall group shows that the migration of academics in this field to the U.S. is recent, with a majority living in the U.S. from at least 5 years up to 20 years.

Education and Teaching

Table 4.7 shows that about 37% of the faculty surveyed has a Masters degree; and 54% of the sample has a Ph.D. degree. One surveyed has a Bachelor's degree only and one has an Associate of Business Administration degree, which is an undergraduate degree as well. I observed above that the Portuguese faculty migration of academics to the U.S. is recent, and in Table 4.7 the majority have high academic level such as Ph.D. degrees.

Table 4.7

What is the highest level of education you completed? (Q6)

	Number	Percent
ABA*	1	4.2%
Bachelor	1	4.2%
Master	9	37.4%
Ph.D.	13	54.2%
Total	24	100%

*ABA: Associate of Business Administration

The data in Table 4.8 show that a great majority, 62%, learned Portuguese at home either as a first language or growing up as bilingual.

Table 4.8

Where did you initially learn Portuguese? (Q10)

	Number	Percent
Home	15	62.5%
School	6	25.0%
Travel abroad	3	12.5%
Total	24	100%

In Table 4.9 the data show that teaching Portuguese as a foreign language was indeed the first choice of work of most in the sample, about 58%; the remaining 42% responded no. However, Table 4.10 indicates that about 96% expect to continue in the profession, thus indicating that the activity is giving positive returns to the faculty involved.

Table 4.9

Teaching Portuguese as a foreign language was your first choice of work (Q20)

	Number	Percent
Yes	14	58.3%
No	10	41.7%
Total	24	100%

Table 4.10

Do you expect to continue teaching Portuguese as a foreign language? (Q24)

	Number	Percent
Yes	23	95.8%
NA*	1	4.2%
Total	24	100%

*NA is no answer.

In Tables 4.7-4.10 we find that the majority hold doctoral degrees and learned Portuguese at home. The great majority expects to continue in the field even though for 42% this was not their first choice. The survey of Milleret (2010) shows that in her sample the longevity of the faculty teaching Portuguese in the U.S. confirms the expectations above. In her sample, 30% of the surveyed are serving as faculty between 1-5 years, 20% between 6-10 years, 13% between 11-15 years, 14% between 16-20 years and 22% more than 20 years. Overall, the majority has longevity above 11 years.

Training

Question 16 asks, “Have you attended any professional development course or program?” The results were that 92% said yes. The listed activities were workshops, seminars, training programs, and conferences. The data for question 21 in Table 4.11 state that 63% have received foreign language training and 33% have not. The sample shows that the majority received some kind of training to teach foreign languages.

Table 4.11

Have you ever received any training to teach Portuguese as a foreign language? (Q21)

	Number	Percent
Yes	15	62.5%
No	8	33.3%
NA*	1	4.2%
Total	24	100.00%

*NA is no answer.

In terms of the ACTFL components and characteristics 6 and 7 for development of foreign language proficiency, the sample surveyed shows that 2/3 have received training. ACTFL components and characteristics 6 and 7 are:

6. Field experiences, including student teaching, that are supervised by a qualified foreign language educator who is knowledgeable about current instructional approaches and issues in the field of foreign language education.
7. Opportunities for candidates to experience technology-enhanced instruction and to use technology in their own teaching.

The next two questions in the survey have an intensity scale for individuals surveyed to show how strongly they agree or disagree with the stated question. Question 22 in Table 4.12 below states: To what extent do you feel that your knowledge and skills have been enhanced in each of the following areas as a result of your teacher training?

The areas are: a. Instructional methods; b. Use of technology in the classroom; c. Strategies for teaching. The intensity scale is the lowest (1) for a negative and the highest (5) for positive, with (2, 3, 4) in between. I calculate the average frequency as the weighted average of the intensity and the number of respondents who chose that level. For example, in area a. Instructional methods we have that the last column is

$$\text{Average Intensity} = \frac{1\times0 + 2\times0 + 3\times1 + 4\times2 + 5\times12}{15} = 4.7.$$

Table 4.12

To what extent do you feel that your knowledge and skills have been enhanced in each of the following areas as a result of your teacher training? (Q22)

	Not at all				Great Extent	Total Respondents	Average Relative Frequency (Average Intensity)
Intensity Scale	1	2	3	4	5		
a. Instructional methods	0	0	1	2	12	15	4.7
b. Use of technology in instruction (e.g., computers, language lab)	0	0	5	6	7	18	4.1
c. Strategies for teaching	0	0	1	7	8	16	4.4

A similar calculation is done for Question 23: To what extent do you feel that your knowledge and skills have been enhanced in each of the following areas as a result of your teaching experience?

Table 4.13

To what extent do you feel that your knowledge and skills have been enhanced in each of the following areas as a result of your teaching experience? (Q23)

	Not at all				Great Extent	Total Respondents	Average Relative Frequency (Average Intensity)
Intensity Scale	1	2	3	4	5		
a. Instructional methods	0	0	2	5	13	20	4.6
b. Use of technology in instruction (e.g., computers, language lab)	0	0	5	8	6	19	4.1
c. Strategies for teaching	0	1	1	4	13	18	4.8

The data from Tables 4.12 and 4.13 (Q22 and Q23) state that more people value experience over training. While the great majority in the sample has received training as seen in Table 4.11, the result above shows that, according to their own perception, training is slightly less valued than actual experience (or practice). What would be a plausible interpretation of this result? It could be because training is not widespread for the Portuguese language in the U.S. when compared to other more traditional languages taught in the U.S., such as Spanish and French. It is only recently that Portuguese has been growing as a foreign language in the U.S. In effect, the ACTFL components and characteristics 7 emphasizes the role of experience in technology-enhanced instruction and my results above confirm that faculty gives higher importance to that standard.

The analysis of the average intensity columns in Tables 4.12 and 4.13 shows the following results.

1. *Instructional methods are equally important for both training and experience.*

   The result shows that the use of instructional methods and the knowledge of instructional methods are important in both training and experience. This provides guidelines for teaching materials such as textbooks on the subject. Materials that explore theories and approaches of foreign language teaching and learning in the context of language and culture are deemed important by the participants in this survey, as those are key elements in the teacher's set of tools; i.e. to connect context, communication and culture.

2. *Use of technology is less important than instructional methods in both training and experience*.

   The faculty in this survey value more instructional methods than technology. That may be because of the fast pace of technology innovation and faculty cannot keep up with the new technologies available. In addition, schools may not be well equipped to provide the support needed to use effectively the new technology in the classrooms.[44] In effect, my interpretation is that technology is a tool that can complement instructional methods, for example the way information is presented in the classroom. Indeed, the results do show that

[44] See Brause, Basch and Chow (2011) who discuss the barriers and problems associated with using new technology in FL education.

technology is equally important for training and experience, which reinforces the point made above.

3. *Strategies for teaching are found to be more important than the use of technology for both experience and training.*

   Again, the choice of strategy is ranked above the use of technology in the sense that technology is seen as a tool to complement the choice of strategy.

4. *Strategies for teaching are found to be more important than instructional methods for gaining experience, but less important for training.*

   In effect, strategies for teaching are well valued by the faculty in this sample; however experience seems to provide better strategies than training according to the answers provided above.

The two tables above (4.12 and 4.13) provide a good picture of how the faculty teaching Portuguese in higher education in the U.S. “feel” about training and experience. In essence, training and experience are seen as complementing one another. Even though the value is slightly higher for experience, the differences are not that large, leading me to conclude that training and experience are complementary in this field. For example, teaching materials that focus on culture may require experience on the part of the faculty, besides training.

Finally, question 18 asks, “Have you had any other job before teaching Portuguese as a foreign language?” The results were that 75% said yes, and 25% said no. The fact that the great majority had other jobs before teaching Portuguese can be interpreted as a potential reason for the higher value given to general experience in Tables 4.12 and 4.13 above.

Characteristics of Faculty

Figure 4.1 shows on the vertical scale the degree levels from question 6 of the survey (What is the highest level of education you completed?) and the fields of study of the respective degrees on the horizontal scale.

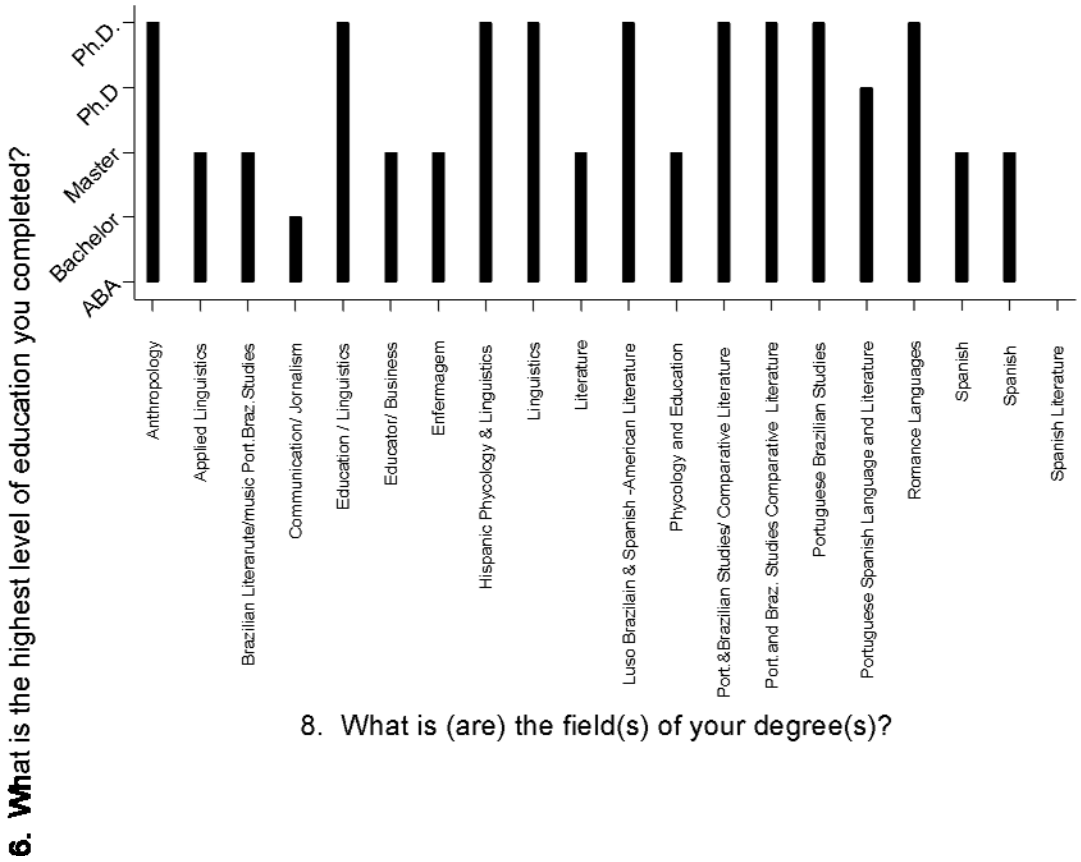

Figure 4.1: Education level and field of degree

Note: PhDs are listed twice on the top, but refer to the same level of degree.

The doctoral degrees are in Anthropology, Linguistics, Comparative Literature, Brazilian Studies and Romance Languages. The Master degrees are more diverse, from Applied Linguistics to Nursing, Spanish, Psychology and Education. The diverse set of degrees may be another reason why they value slightly more experience than training in

Tables 4.12 and 4.13 above. Their fields of study are more diverse, meaning that they are not specific in the language acquisition field.

Figure 4.2 shows the mother tongue (first language in question 9 of the survey) of the faculty in the vertical scale, and the fields of study of the respective degrees on the horizontal scale. Most of the participants have Portuguese as a mother tongue. These results reflect the fact that the most participants are from a broad community in the higher education system.

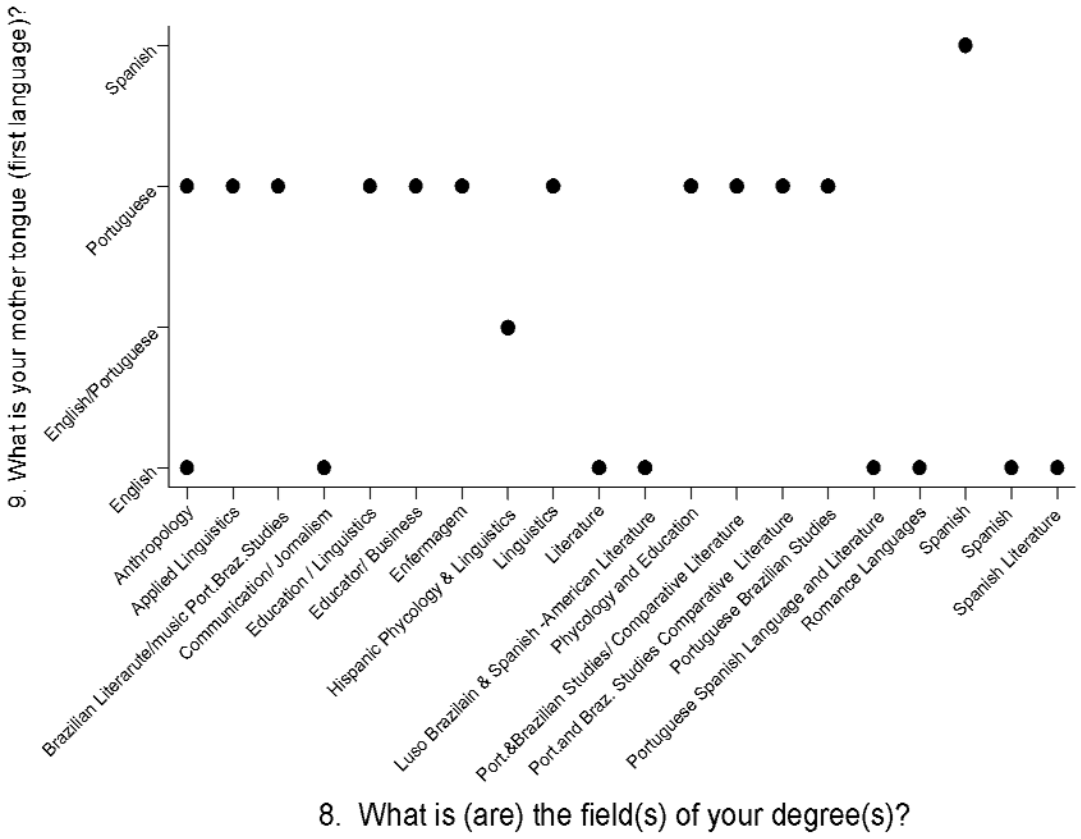

Figure 4.2: Mother tongue and field of degree

The question “Do you teach any other language as well?” (Q13) showed that only 20% of the 24 surveyed teach other languages as well. The other languages taught are Spanish (3), Spanish/English (1) and French (1).

Table 4.14, shows that the faculty in my sample is 29% full-time faculty (the sum of professor, associate professor and assistant professor, not including lecturers), 45% of lecturers (the sum of lecturers, senior lecturer/language coordinator and senior lecturers, both full time and part time) and 25% of graduate teaching assistants (all part time). On the other hand, Milleret's (2010) sample shows that 62% of institutions have 1-2 full time faculty members on the teaching staff, 45% of institutions have 1-2 lecturers on the teaching staff, and 16% of institutions have 1-2 graduate teaching assistants. Regarding this question, my interpretation is that the institutions in Milleret's sample represent the demand for PFL instructors while my sample represents the offer of instructors. Under this interpretation my sample shows much fewer full time faculty than needed by all institutions.

Table 4.14

Current employment position (Q14)

	Number	Percent
Assistant Professor	4	16.67%
Associate Professor	2	8.33%
Graduate Student	6	25%
Lecturer	5	20.83%
Professor	1	4.17%
Senior Lecturer/Language Coordinator	2	8.33%
Senior Lecturer	4	16.67%
Total	24	100%

Note: Two graduate students are lecturers as well; but were counted as graduate students.

Figure 4.3 shows a graph of the current employment position on the horizontal scale and the level of education in the vertical scale. Senior lecturers, Assistant professors, Associate professors and Professors all do have a Ph.D. The graduate students have a Masters degree, while lecturers are in the range of undergraduate to Ph.D. degrees.

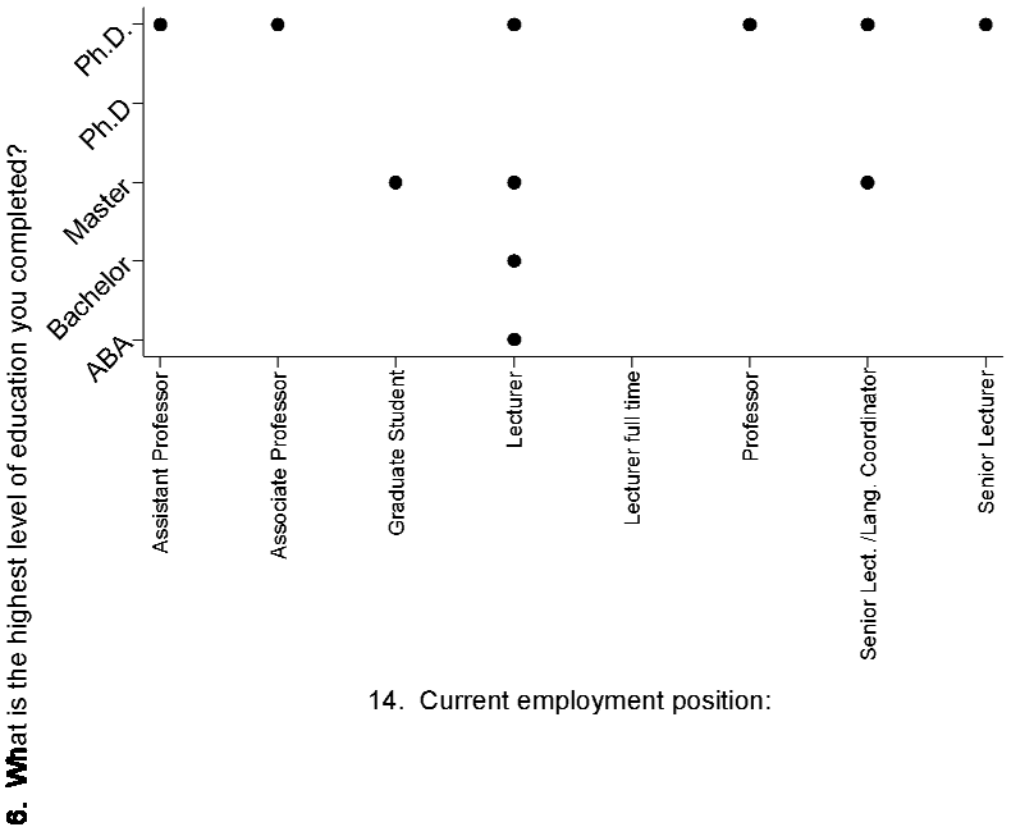

Figure 4.3: Level of education and current employment

Figure 4.4 below shows current employment position in the horizontal axis and appointment level in terms of full time (ft=1) versus part time (pt=1) in the vertical axis. Only graduate students and lecturers are part time faculty, while all others are full time.

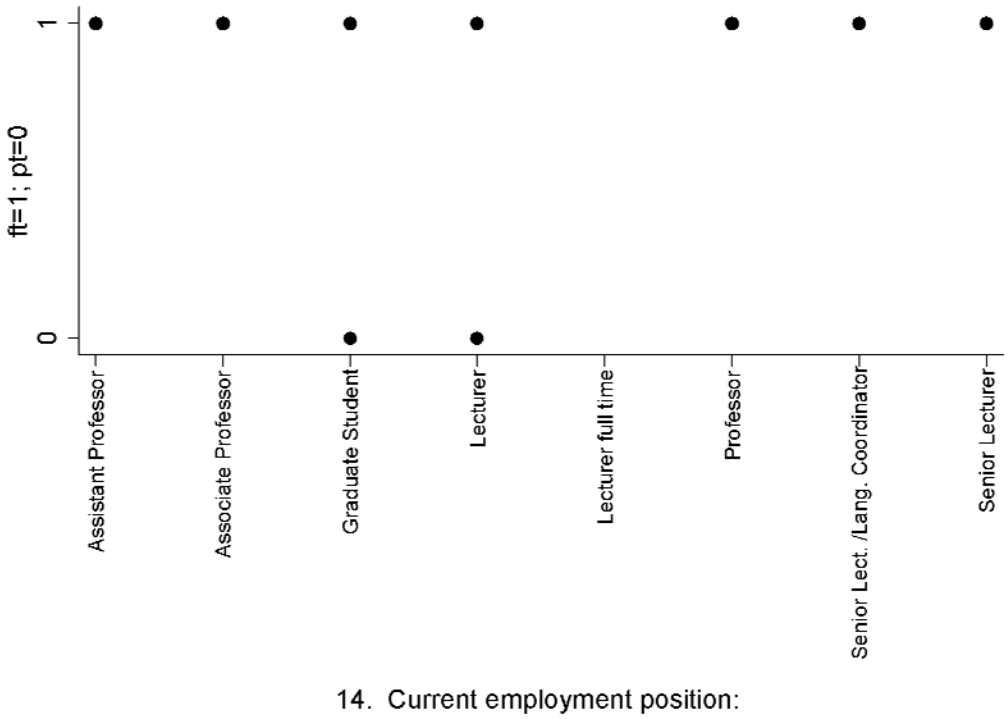

Figure 4.4: Full time, part time and current employment

Table 4.15 below presents results on longevity. It shows that 25% have been teaching between 8 to 12 years. 21% of the surveyed faculty has been teaching for less than 2 years; another 21% between 5 and 8 years; and another 21% for more than 12 years. The remaining 8% have been teaching from 2 to 5 years. When compared to the sample of Milleret (2010) my results are very similar. One important conclusion to draw from Tables 4.15 is that the faculty in this survey fulfills the ACTFL components and characteristics 5 and 6 listed below. Thus, the area of field experience may be well served in my sample survey.

ACTFL components and characteristics 5 and 6 are:

5. Field experiences prior to student teaching that include experiences in foreign language classrooms.
6. Field experiences, including student teaching, that are supervised by a qualified foreign language educator who is knowledgeable about current instructional approaches and issues in the field of foreign language education.

Table 4.15

How long have you been teaching Portuguese as a foreign language? (Q15)

	Number	Percent
Not Available	1	4.17%
Less than 2 years	5	20.83%
2 to 5 years	2	8.33%
5 to 8 years	5	20.83%
8 to 12 years	6	25%
More than 12 years	5	20.83%
Total	24	100

Figure 4.5 presents the previous work on the horizontal scale and the current degree level when teaching Portuguese on the vertical scale.

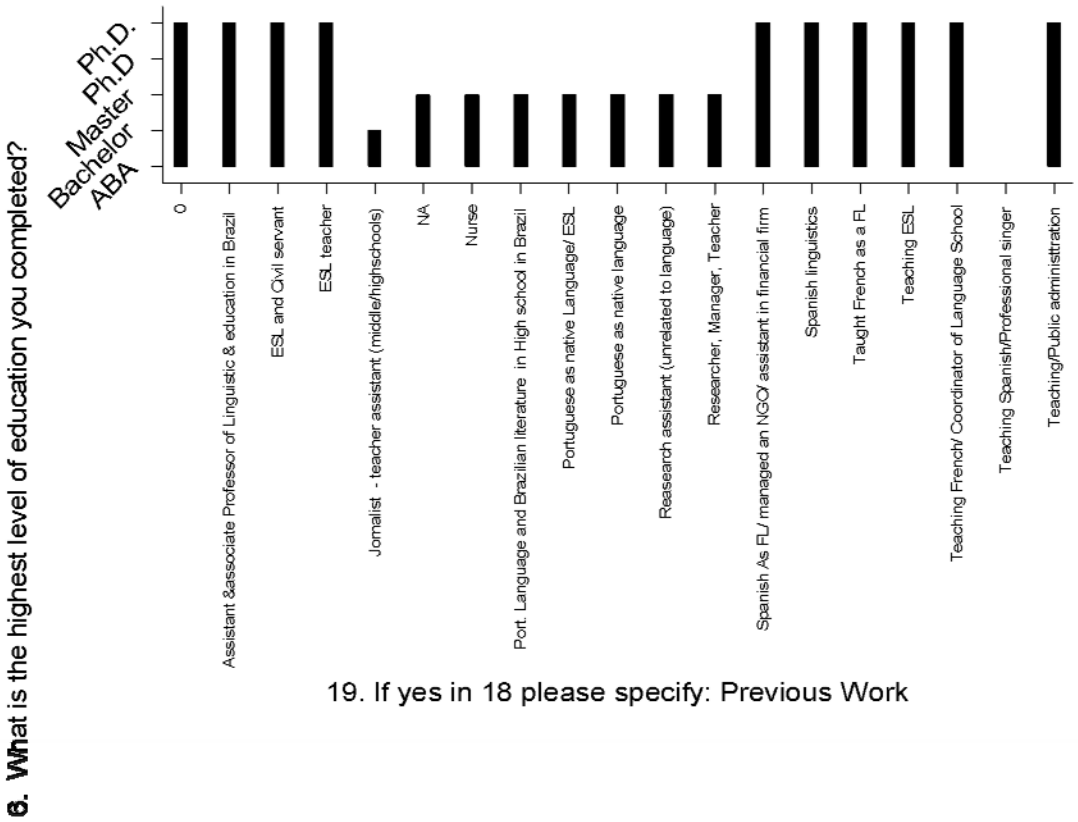

Figure 4.5: Level of education and previous work

Figure 4.5, shows that teachers currently teaching Portuguese come mostly from a heritage background; however, some come from a diverse set of occupations including journalism, nursing and management.

Finally, I use the data from the survey to examine the potential relationships among the characteristics and profiles of those surveyed in my sample. Table 4.16 shows a linear correlation matrix of the characteristics of the surveyed.[45]

[45] Linear correlation is a statistical tool that measures whether two variables move in the same direction or in opposite direction or do not move together in a linear pattern. If the correlation is positive the two variables move in the same direction, if the correlation is negative they move in opposite direction. If the correlation is zero, they do not move in a

The variables in the table are as follows. Education refers to the question: What is the highest level of education you completed? [PhD=3, Master=2, Bachelor=1, ABA=0 (ABA is Associate in Business Administration)]. Degree U.S. refers to what country or countries did you receive your degree(s) from? (US=1, Brazil=0). Mother Tongue refers to what is your mother tongue (first language)? (Portuguese=3; English=2; Spanish=1). Other Language refers to the question: Do you teach any other language as well? (Yes=1; No=0). Full-Part time refers to the Current employment position (Full Time=1, Part Time=0). Years Teaching refers to the question: How long have you been teaching Portuguese as a foreign language? (Answer in years). Development refers to the question: Have you attended any professional development course or program? (Yes=1; No=0). Finally, Job Before refers to the question: Have you had any other job before teaching Portuguese as a foreign language? (Yes=1, No=0).

The values in Table 4.16 refer to the linear correlation between the variables. For example, the correlation between the level of Education and Degree in the U.S. is positive, but very low (0.10 or 10%). It means that the higher the level of the education attained the more likely the participant had received his or her degree in the U.S. However, the correlation is low, only a magnitude of 10%, so not statistically significant. The shaded values which represent values above the 40% level are considered statistically significant.

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recognized pattern. Statistical material is from my doctoral statistics class of Prof. Blakeslee, 2007.

Table 4.16

Linear Correlation Matrix of Characteristics

	Education	Degree US	Mother Tongue	Other Language	Full – Part Time	Years Teaching	Development
Education	1.00						
Degree U.S.	0.10	1.00					
Mother Tongue	-0.20	0.12	1.00				
Other Language	**-0.42***	-0.05	0.03	1.00			
Full-Part Time	**0.69***	0.40	-0.12	-0.05	1.00		
Years Teaching	**0.41***	0.23	0.03	-0.28	0.16	1.00	
Development	-0.03	-0.13	-0.08	-0.22	-0.13	0.11	1.00
Job Before	-0.19	-0.26	-0.35	0.06	-0.26	0.20	**0.52***

* Refers to value of correlation being statistically different than zero.

The results are as follows:

1. *The level of education is negatively related to teaching other languages; the correlation is high and negative -42%.*

   This means that the higher the level of the degree of the individual, the lower the likelihood that the individual will be teaching other languages. In effect, it shows that the higher the level of the degree, the more specialized the faculty is in teaching the Portuguese language. Consequently, the ones who have lower degree levels, such as master's degrees, are more diversified (as seen in Figure 4.1) and are more likely to teach another language besides Portuguese.

2. *The level of education is positively related to full-time position; the correlation is high and positive 69%.*

This complements finding 1. above, which means that the higher the level of the degree, the more specialized the faculty is and the more likely the faculty is to have a full-time position.

3. *The level of education is positively related to the years teaching the language; the correlation is high and positive 41%*.

   This means that as the level of the degree is higher, I observe that the years of teaching the language also increase. Thus, someone with a Ph.D. is more likely to have higher longevity in the position.

4. *Attending professional development is positively related to having had another job before teaching Portuguese; the correlation is high and positive 52%.*

   In other words, if you came from a different field, it is more likely that you will seek professional development and training to teach Portuguese.

Summary and Conclusions

In this chapter I investigated the profile of Portuguese language faculty currently teaching in the higher education system in the U.S. My sample shows that the majority of the current Portuguese faculty in higher education are middle aged female Brazilians who generally meet the requirement of the ACTFL field experience. In particular components and characteristics 5 and 6 regarding field experience may be well served in the sample surveyed. In terms of cultural components and characteristics numbers 3 and 8 the Brazilian faculty who are native speakers of the target language already have intercultural competence. Also, in terms of the ACTFL component and characteristic 1, development of foreign language proficiency and communication, the sample surveyed shows that 2/3 have received training.

I provide a picture of how the faculty teaching Portuguese in higher education in the U.S. “feel” about training and experience. In essence, training and experience are seen as complementing one another. Even though the value is slightly higher for experience, the differences are not that significant, leading me to conclude that from teachers’ point of view, training and experience are complementary in this field.

I found that the level of education is positively related to full-time positions, and the level of education is positively related to the years teaching the language. Also attending professional development is positively related to having had another job before teaching Portuguese, possibly because they were not well trained in the field. In summary, this sample provides a profile of who is currently teaching Portuguese as a foreign language in the U.S.

In the previous chapters, my research has shown first the framework of foreign language politics in the U.S. as a prelude to an examination of the development and growth of PFL in the U.S. Then I study the motivation of students to learn PFL and who teaches PFL in higher education in the U.S. My next chapter follows this progression and studies how PFL in the U.S is currently being taught.

Chapter Five - The Role of Culture in Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

Introduction

As stated in the first chapter, this dissertation examines the current status of PFL in the U.S. In chapter three, I investigate the students' motivation and in chapter four I have surveyed who is currently teaching PFL in the U.S. In this chapter I engage in a discussion about one of the most important tools that mediate the relationship between students, teacher, language and culture, namely the textbook. Therefore, I seek to identify some current textbooks published in the U.S. and currently being used in the classroom.[46]

In language teaching, textbooks are important tools to guide and organize lessons through their stages. Foreign language teaching has evolved through the years and new methods and approaches have inspired language professionals, scholars and textbook authors to adapt to the newest teaching demands[47]. However, unlike the more traditional languages such as French, Spanish and Italian, Portuguese teaching materials are scarce. In addition, they are sparsely published with large gaps of time between them.[48]

Portuguese textbooks published in the United States are registered since 1943, as follows: *Brazilian Portuguese* in 1943; and *Introduction to Brazilian Portuguese: a grammar and conversation tex*t in 1957. Subsequently, according to Silva (2010), the creation of materials dedicated to PFL with the collaboration of a group of professionals

[46] My main focus is on textbooks recently published in the U.S. since I examine how Brazilian culture is depicted to a specific target of American students. PFL textbooks published in Brazil are sometimes used in the U. S. as well.

[47] More discussions of those methods and approaches will come below.

[48] As I show below, sometimes the gap reaches up to twelve years.

from the U.S. and Brazil came together in 1960 at the University of Texas. The goal was to create didactic materials for the teaching of Portuguese as a foreign language with a focus on the spoken language of Brazil; this project was subsidized by the Modern Language Association (MLA). In the following years, some materials were developed and used in universities in the U.S and abroad. For example, *Português contemporâneo*, (1966), *Português: conversação e gramática* (1969); *Modern Portuguese - A Project of the Modern Language Association of America* (1971); *"From Spanish to Portuguese"* (1971). In the 1980s two more textbooks were published in the U.S.: *Pra frente – An introductory course in Portuguese* (1981) and *Travessia* (1988). In the 1990s, two more textbooks: *Brasil Língua e Cultura* (1992)[49] and *"Com licença: Portuguese for Spanish speaker"* (1992). The low quantity and the gap between publications gave very few options to instructors of PFL in the U.S. whom, for many years, had to create and improvise their own materials to be used in specific classes.[50]

Fortunately, due to the recent growth of PFL and renewed interest in Brazil and its rich culture, more textbooks have been published. One key reason emphasized here is the new energized economic, cultural and global role Brazil is playing. Overall, this new phenomenon creates a strong demand for new materials among the emerging community of Portuguese as a foreign language teaching professionals, scholars and speakers. The most recent books published in the United States are *Brasil: Lingua e Cultura* (2006, 3rd

[49] *Brasil Língua e Cultura* has been published almost every year after its first edition in 1992 (1998, 1999, 2002, 2004 , 2006).

[50] Myself included, mostly in the late 1980s and 1990s.

ed.); *Ponto de Encontro* (2007); *Pois não* (2008); *Working Portuguese for Beginners* (2010); and *Beginners Brazilian Portuguese* (2011).

In this chapter, I review three recent textbooks through the lenses of culture along the lines of Benedict (1934), Kramsh (1993), Duranti (1997) and Byran and Grundy (2002). The three recently published textbooks being used in the U.S. universities that I chose for this survey are: *Brasil: Lingua e Cultura* (2006, 3rd ed.); *Ponto de Encontro* (2007) and *Working Portuguese for Beginners* (2010).

The implementation of cultural content in language teaching reflected in textbook's content is most significantly noticed in the 1980s. This is the period when culture becomes a main focus of language teaching and becomes fully integrated into the FL higher education curriculum. The Modern Language Association (MLA) recommends that language and culture should be integrated in FL classrooms (Modern Language Association 2007). Moreover, Culture is identified as one of the five "Cs" of the *Standards for Foreign Language Learning* of the American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages (ACTFL).[51]

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[51] Communication - Communicate in Languages Other Than English: Standard 1.1: Students engage in conversations, provide and obtain information, express feelings and emotions, and exchange opinions. Standard 1.2: Students understand and interpret written and spoken language on a variety of topics. Standard 1.3: Students present information, concepts, and ideas to an audience of listeners or readers on a variety of topics.

Cultures - Gain Knowledge and Understanding of Other Cultures: Standard 2.1: Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the practices and perspectives

My analysis of the methods and approaches in the current Portuguese textbooks through the lens of culture is instrumental to the main question of this chapter: What is the content of PFL books regarding the role of culture in text and context?

First, I will give a brief chronological review of the shifts in language teaching followed by important definitions of culture.

As discussed in chapter two, in the 1930s, 1940s and 1950s, times marked as post World War I and II, the focus on FL teaching was based on structural linguistics and grammar rules. Hence, textbooks reflected this pattern. However, as stated by Bateman

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of the culture studied. Standard 2.2: Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the products and perspectives of the culture studied.

Connections - Connect with Other Disciplines and Acquire Information: Standard 3.1: Students reinforce and further their knowledge of other disciplines through the foreign language. Standard 3.2: Students acquire information and recognize the distinctive viewpoints that are only available through the foreign language and its cultures.

Comparisons - Develop Insight into the Nature of Language and Culture: Standard 4.1: Students demonstrate understanding of the nature of language through comparisons of the language studied and their own. Standard 4.2: Students demonstrate understanding of the concept of culture through comparisons of the cultures studied and their own.

Communities - Participate in Multilingual Communities at Home and Around the World: Standard 5.1: Students use the language both within and beyond the school setting Standard 5.2: Students show evidence of becoming life-long learners by using the language for personal enjoyment and enrichment.

and Mattos (2006) culture had been already presented in FL textbooks in the 1930s and 1940s when pictures and narratives of daily life were added, to the textbooks, followed by the inclusion of authentic reading materials in the target language.

In the late 1950s, the audio-lingual method (ALM) and behaviorism influenced by Skinner (1957) supported the hypothesis that language learning is based on habit formation through error free drilling repetition, thus disregarding meaning, e.g. Lally (1998). In the 1960s, Noam Chomsky and the "cognitive revolution" say that the brain is equipped with a language acquisition device that allows humans to learn a language and already have the grammar rules that facilitate language acquisition. The language teaching based on the cognitive approach emphasized thinking, comprehension, and memory, with a focus on a student's learning style, ability and aptitude; i.e. the generalization of language as a cognitive skill.[52] In the 1970s, language teaching focused on meaning and fluency instead of performance, thus presenting communicative and functional aspects of the foreign language. In the 1980s, Krashen influences teaching with the "Natural approach," based on visual and oral input in the target language (Mitchell & Myles, 2004).

In the new millennium, communicative language teaching and learning focuses on the learner as a more active participant where context, meaning, negotiation and

[52] It is important to mention that Chomsky with the "Universal Grammar" or "generative grammar" influenced foreign language teaching (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Chomsky's "Universal Grammar" claims that humans are programmed to acquire language as children are born with a Language Acquisition Device (LAD), (Brown & Eisterhold, 2004).

contrastive analysis, as well as gender and cultural, social and other contextual variables are taken into account (Savignon, 1991, 2002). Thus, the implementation of communicative language teaching and learning requires teaching materials that provide practice not only of grammatical competence, but also of sociolinguistic discourse and strategic competence in a context (Canale & Swain, 1980; Savignon, 1997).[53] Textbooks in general have been increasingly giving more attention to the cultural aspect of language learning not only by using pictures and authentic reading materials but also by taking advantage of new technologies that facilitate the understanding of language and culture as a whole.

As shown in the previous chapters, one of the main motivations for learning Portuguese has been attributed to an attraction to its rich and diverse culture, specifically of Brazil and Brazilian Portuguese language. Let us understand culture in some depth.

What is Culture?

There are different points of view about what culture is. Duranti (1997, p. 24) defines culture as "something learned, transmitted and passed down from one generation to the next through human actions, often in the form of face-to-face interaction, and, of course, through linguistic communication." In the fields of Sociology, Sociolinguistics and especially Anthropology, "culture is the learned and shared patterns and characteristics of a group of people" (Oswald 1986, cited in Duranti 1997, p.24). Earlier on Benedict (1934, p. 16) states that "Culture is what binds people together."

Brown and Eisterhold (2004) consider two different definitions of culture. The first is from Tylor (1871), "(culture is)…that complex which includes knowledge, belief,

[53] Those methods and approaches are analyzed in the current textbooks examined below.

art, law, morals, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as members of society." The second is from Geertz (1973), "Culture is best seen not as complexes of concrete behavior patterns-customs, usages, traditions, habit clusters, as has been the case up to now, but as a set of control mechanisms-plans, recipes, rules, instructions (what computer engineers call 'programs') – for governing behavior." For Geertz, human behavior is like "symbolic action," as he agrees with Weber's (1949) definition that "man is an animal suspended in webs of significance he himself has spun, I take culture as those webs are interpretative … webs of meaning;" cited in Schneider (1987).

From all the above, I conclude that culture is both a set of attitudes and beliefs shared by a particular group and something which defines a particular group. Not only does this concept refer to a group's way of thinking, feeling, and acting, but also to the internalized patterns for doing certain things in certain ways, not just the performing act of doing. This concept of culture also includes the physical manifestation of a group as exhibited in their achievements and contributions to society.

In text and context, culture is an important part of PFL teaching and learning. The dissemination of Brazilian culture is a potential important attractor of students for PFL and the immersion in the Brazilian culture is a useful tool for students. Thus, my analysis of the textbooks below focuses on language and culture.

Language and Culture teaching in the classroom

In the 1980s, the incorporation of cultural content in FL teaching increased significantly and today it is the main focus of FL education. However, earlier in 1964, Brooks was a great believer in the inclusion of the "anthropological approach" to the

teaching of culture; he also formulated the distinction between “Culture with a capital C” and “Culture with a small c.” For Brooks (1964), culture with “Capital C” includes the means of incorporating the study of art, music, literature, politics and much more about a country. The “Small c” cultural study is the study of people’s behavior in their daily life, including lifestyles and preferences. What Brooks (1964) defines as “Culture with a capital C” and “Culture with a small c,” is analogous to Kramsch (1993) who adapted a different nomenclature “highbrow” and “lowbrow” as a way to transmit cultural information.[54]

Kramsch (1993) states that language learning should concentrate on four basic skills: listening; speaking; reading and writing plus culture. Most importantly, note that for Kramsch culture should not be viewed as a fifth skill, because it is always part of the background. From the first day of a language class, culture is present everywhere and shows itself in the meaning of words, spoken and or written, gestures, postures, eye contact, and articulation, thus guiding students to make sense of foreign words. When students learn to greet someone and introduce themselves to one another, they are already becoming aware of different cultural behavior. Communicating with another human being is not a simple recitation of words, it reflects the way peoples from a given society express themselves through language use, thoughts, beliefs, values, courtesy, rituals, and non-verbal communications such as gestures, way of looking, and whole body language.

Consequently, in 1996, the new foreign language standards acknowledge the need to integrate culture in the language curriculum (Omaggio Hadley, 2001). The

[54] More discussion of those concepts comes below in the analysis of specific readings in FL classes.

teaching of culture may be explored in many different ways, such as through movies, music, food, family and many more topics. The advances in technology in the area of education have given instructors innumerable possibilities to expose students to authentic materials from the target language (Kelm, 2005). Moreover, the reading of authentic materials such as newspaper, source of factual information and literary writing is a valuable tool that is commonly part of a good language textbook. As Kramsch (1998, p. 3) suggests, language used in a "communication context bounds up with culture in multiple and complex ways."

Reading cultural facts in language classes

Cultural themes are usually introduced by reading historical, contemporary factual and fictional texts, which can be from textbooks, books and media such as newspapers and magazines. The introduction of intercultural themes in foreign language classes promotes critical thinking, the understanding of an unfamiliar reality and allows learners to draw comparisons with their own reality. In this chapter, I focus my research on the cultural material in textbooks and I explore the importance of reading in identifying cultural themes.

The importance of reading is readily acknowledged at any academic level, whether reading is in L1, L2 or in FL. Reading is one of the key components of a child's intellectual development and of an adult's daily life. The late Brazilian educator Paulo Freire, in his extensive work towards ending illiteracy in Brazil and other lusophone countries, emphasizes in his book "*The importance of the act of reading,*" (1983) that

"the reading of the world precedes the reading of the words and that the reading of the words implies the continuity of the reading of the world."[55]

The concept above can be applied to FL language teaching and learning. Foreign language learners can benefit from reading beyond the simple recognitions of words, sentences and grammatical rules. The practice of reading gives members of different communities the opportunity to learn about historical and current facts that make up the community, the state, the country, and, as a matter of fact the world. More importantly, the practice of reading and writing raises the awareness of the cultural environment. Through the reading and writing of cultural themes, one builds up vocabulary and fluency in a particular language together with cultural knowledge. This mechanism mirrors' Freire's thesis about the case of students in foreign language classes: the reading of other cultures allows learners to reflect on their own culture as well.

According to Kramsch (1998, p.23), the teaching of culture in language classes has two main components: cultural information and cultural anthropology.

1. Cultural information is based on the statistical or institutional structure information, known as "highbrow," which is centered in literature and the arts. On the other hand "lowbrow" information is the folklore of everyday life. Kramsch (1998) argues that this sort of information does not give the student the total understanding of the attitudes, values and mindsets of the target society.

[55] Translated from Paulo Freire: "…a leitura do mundo precede sempre a leitura da palavra e a leitura desta implica na leitura da outra."

2. Cross cultural psychology or cultural anthropology[56] is the cultural context of the target society. Culture contains enough predictability to ensure an understanding of meaning. In other words, it is presented through authentic materials and in particular situations, which require an understanding of what is appropriate or not in terms of language usage and manners. The importance of cross-cultural information contributes to reflection and nonjudgmental interpretation of members of the target society/language. Information, when given isolated, can lead to a generalization of the target language society, which contributes to stereotypes.

In language teaching and learning, the current trend is to view culture as a broad set of facts and meanings which may be given through statistical information, or may be highbrow. Kramsch (1998) points out the struggle of foreign language learners to understand the facts and meanings, mainly when instinctively there is a tendency to see those foreign facts and meanings through the prism of one's own cultural experience. According to Valdés (2002, p. 49) "The comparison of other cultures with the language being taught opens great vistas for the teacher and provides a basis for better understanding of persons from other backgrounds, as well as supplying new insight into approaches to teaching a second language."

In practice, reading factual or informative materials should be explored with pre-reading activities that engage the students and facilitate their reading. Usually the reading content in a textbook follows the grammatical topics being taught or conversational topic being studied, but does not provide a pre-reading exercise per se that involves working

[56] Cultural Anthropology is a branch of Anthropology that focuses on the investigation and interpretation of cultural groups. It also uses ethnographic research (Creswell, 1997).

with the vocabulary of a given text to explore different meanings. This activity would develop naturally into parallel discussions that would lead to a better understanding of the text to be read. Reading factual texts may be a great tool to expand vocabulary while assimilating grammatical and cultural aspects of the community of the language being learned; however, it must be contextualized in order to be meaningful. In other words, it helps students to learn through a given situation (Langer, 1981, Couser, 1990, Robbins, 2001, Kramsch, 2002).

I proceed below with the analysis of three PFL textbooks chosen for this study and currently being used to teach Portuguese in the United States.

The Analysis of Three Portuguese Textbooks

In the three textbooks:[57] *Brasil! Lingua e Cultura, Ponto de Encontro,* and *Working Portuguese for Beginners,* I target the cultural content as materials for teaching and learning Portuguese as a foreign language. The first two textbooks target primarily university students and, along the chapters, the students' lives in the university are more evident. The third book, as the name implies, "*Working Portuguese*" explores the business application of the language, with topics and vocabulary chosen accordingly. *Working Portuguese for Beginners (WP),* of the three textbooks analyzed in this chapter, is the most recently published, as it was just released in 2010. *Working Portuguese* may be a scholar's response to the new global economic momentum that is motivating students to learn Portuguese. The current status of Brazil as part of the BRIC, as the host

[57] There is no presumption of ranking the textbooks by any metric of quantity or quality. What I will show is how they present the aspects of communication and culture in text and context.

of the next soccer World Cup and the Olympic Games, and its particularly favorable current economic situation is another strong source of motivation for students and professionals to seek Brazilian Portuguese language instruction.[58]

For the analysis of the three textbooks, I follow Kramsch's (1998) framework and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language (ACTFL) standards for foreign language learning. In particular, the ACTFL identifies five goal areas known as the five "Cs" in foreign language education: Communication, Culture, Connections, Comparisons and Communities. Specifically, I discuss communication and culture in the three textbooks *Brasil língua e cultura* (BLC), *Ponto de Encontro* (PE), and *Working Portuguese* (WP) in text and context.

Textbooks Description

Brasil Língua e Cultura (BLC) by Lathrop and Dias (3rd ed.), published in 2002 in the U.S., is a textbook that is divided into 20 lessons (lições). The lessons target American college students and particular attention is given to the college system in Brazil.

This particular textbook emphasizes communicative and cultural aspects when using themes that present and discuss different regions of Brazil. Specifically, it introduces cultural topics, such as "jogo do bicho,"[59] and life in the "favelas" (slums) of Brazil. The book also features informative texts about three major cities in Brazil: São Paulo, Rio de Janeiro and Brasília, the capital. There are also sections called "Vozes do

[58] See chapters two and three above as well.

[59] "Jogo do bicho." An illegal but very popular gambling game in Brazil based on drawing numbers that are associated with the names of 25 animals.

Brasil or Vozes Brasileiras" (Brazilian Voices), providing tips about Brazilian touristic landmarks and historical information of the country using the target language (Brazilian Portuguese). After reading the text, students can orally practice with "Pratica oral," which are basic fill-in-the-blank exercises with words in Portuguese; i.e. words that were already highlighted in the text. In addition, there are "Leiturinhas" (short readings), providing information in the target language about Brazil's history. Finally, this book also features "Notas culturais" (cultural notes) in English and audio materials.

Each chapter or each lesson opens with a picture that is related to the topic, for example in the opening of the topic related to "compras" (shopping) there is a picture of a shopping mall. The geographic content focuses on Sao Paulo, Rio de Janeiro and Brasilia, with one chapter exclusively dedicated to each of the three regions of Brazil. Another chapter is fully dedicated to cultural aspects of Brazil as well[60].

In Table 5.1 below I give a description of the chapter/lessons of BLC. Each lesson described in Table 5.1 provides vivid examples of Brooks' 1964 distinction between culture with a "capital C" and culture with a "small c". Examples of "capital C" culture are found in Lesson 4: "aspectos da sociedade Brasileira (aspects of Brazilian society); Lesson 11: "DDD, CEP, Transporte"; (transport) and Lesson 14: "A nova economia Brasileira" (The new Brazilian economy). Some examples of "small c" are; Lesson 6: "Paquerando" (flirting); Lesson 7: "Vamos ao barzinho" (Let's go to the bar); Lesson 8: "Os fins de semana" (the weekends).

[60] The authors of BLC address the continental variant of Portuguese in another textbook *Portugal Lingua e Cultura*, which is not being examined in this chapter.

Table 5.1

Brasil, Língua e Cultura (BLC)

Lesson 1	Universidades Brasilerias	Lesson 11	O DDD, o CEP e o transporte
Lesson 2	Trote e o dia do calote	Lesson 12	Espetáculos e diversões
Lesson 3	Fazendo compras	Lesson13	Os feríados
Lesson 4	Aspectos da Sociedade Brasileira	Lesson 14	A Nova economia Brasileira
Lesson 5	A família Brasileira	Lesson15	História e Geografia
Lesson 6	Paquerando	Lesson 16	São Paulo
Lesson 7	Vamos ao Barzinho	Lesson 17	Rio de Janeiro
Lesson 8	Os fins de semana	Lesson 18	Brasília
Lesson 9	A Praia	Lesson 19	Aspectos da cultura brasileira
Lesson 10	Você tem fome	Lesson 20	Guga, Gugu e Xuxa

The first edition of *Ponto de Encontro* (PE) by Klobucka, Jouet-Pastre, Sobral, De Biaji Moreira and Hutchinson, was published in the U.S. in 2007. The textbook targets learners of a second and foreign language in the United States and abroad. The age of the student can vary from youth or adolescent to adults of all ages. The textbook is divided into 15 lessons (chapters), plus the introductory lesson. The reading/texts are dedicated to a subject-topic. The book also comes with a DVD and a Student Activity Book (exercise book).

Each chapter/lesson begins with “À Primeira Vista” (At first sight), which is a reading exercise in the target language (Portuguese). There are boxed explanations, in

English, with additional information related to the topic being explored with focus on meaning. It also contains extensive explanations and grammatical exercises.

Another feature is “Vamos viajar” (two in each chapter). This is a reading in the target language (Portuguese) about habits, rules and the way of life in the Portuguese-speaking world. The end of each chapter features readings about various regions of Brazil and Portugal and Lusophone African countries, all written in the target language (Portuguese); plus two additional pages with the lesson’s vocabulary. The textbook also introduces “Horizontes” (Horizons), presented at the end of each chapter with the main objective of showing regions of the Portuguese-speaking world with information and cultural coverage of the cities and regions. In Brazil, it covers the Southeast, South and Northeast regions; in Portugal, Lisbon, the South, Center and North of Portugal, the Açores and Madeira islands; and in Lusophone Africa it includes Moçambique, Guiné-Bissau and São Tomé and Príncipe, Angola and Cape Verde.

In Table 5.2 below I give a description of the chapter/lessons of PE. These readings present more specifically Kramsch’s “highbrow” information, including Lesson 15, “ciência e tecnologia” (science and technology). Examples of “lowbrow” information are: Lesson 2: “Entre amigos”; Lesson 3: “Horas de lazer”; Lesson 4: “A família”; and Lesson 10: “A comida.”

Table 5.2

Ponto de Encontro (PE)

Lições Preliminares	Greetings	Lesson 7	O tempo e os passa tempos	Lesson 14	A sociedade
Lesson 1	A Universidade	Lesson 8	Festas e tradições	Lesson 15	A ciência e a tecnologia
Lesson 2	Entre Amigos	Lesson 9	O trabalho e os negócios	Expansão grammatical	
Lesson 3	Horas de Lazer	Lesson 10	A comida		
Lesson 4	A família	Lesson 11	A saúde e os médicos		
Lesson 5	A casa e os movies	Lesson 12	As férias e as viagens		
Lesson 6	A roupa e as compras	Lesson 13	O meio ambiente		

Working Portuguese (WP) by Ribeiro, Santos, Amorim and Gerber was published in the United States in 2010, and is the most recent of the three books analyzed here. It targets the learning and teaching of Portuguese as a foreign language by students interested in the business world and vocabulary.

The book is divided into six units (chapters) and a total of 24 lessons providing grammar and cultural subjects in written form and audio files. “The first five units are thematic and have four lessons each; the sixth unit guides students to complete an

independent project."[61] There is also an Appendix; dialogues in English, translations with English to Portuguese glossary, a Portuguese to English glossary and an index.

The grammar in WP is also explained in every chapter, and general Brazilian culture is presented through short readings of topics, such as health (saúde); in the bank (no banco); carnaval, music and so on. The first question-and-answer part after a reading exercise asks the student to reflect upon the text, but basically requires simple "yes" or "no" answers. The second question asks students to compare the information given about Brazil to the student's own life experience in their own country. In terms of learning in a context, this exercise gives students the opportunity to draw from their own experience/culture to understand the target language/society. Table 5.3 below presents the basic structure of the WP textbook.

[61] From Working Portuguese p. xiii.

Table 5.3

Working Portuguese for Beginners (WP)

Unidade 1 Construindo Relações de trabalho	L1: Familiarizando-se L2: Identificando pessoas e lugares	L3: Descrição e horas L4: Os planos
Unidade 2 No trabalho	L5: Na empresa L6: Planejando a semana	L7: Rotina Diária L.8: Fazendo comparação e contrastes
Unidade 3 Compromissos Sociais	L9. Falando sobre o tempo L10: Fazendo reservas e lidando com dinheiro	L11: Fazendo reservas por telefone. L12: Como chegar ao seu destino
Unidade 4 Reuniões	L.13: Tratando de negócios em um restaurante L14: Planejando uma reunião e aceitando um convite	L15: Escrevendo cartas formais e informais e marcando um encontro L.16: Coordenando uma reunião de negócios.
Unidade 5 Desafios gerencias	L17: Vendendo sua idea e negociando um acordo L18: Avaliações de semprenho e de metas do departamento	L19: Tomando decisões administrativas L20: Discutindo o desempenho da companhia e de seus funcionários
Unidade 6 Usando Working Portuguese	L21: Iniciando um projeto e entregando o esquema do projeto L22: Compartilhando o título e o resumo do projeto com seus colegas	L23: O vocabulário do seu projeto L24: As apresentações.

Discussion

The three textbooks analyzed, BLC, PE and WP follow the basic structure of language learning and emphasize the four basic skills defined in Kramsh (1993) and the ACTFL standard: listening, speaking, reading and writing plus culture. The textbooks are organized according to themes and are divided into chapters, 18 chapters in BLC, 15 chapters in PE, and 6 chapters in WP, with readings, grammar exercises, cultural information, factual content, dialogs and pictures. The reading material and information in all three textbooks are most frequently part of the topic as a complement of the grammar being explored within the chapter.

Of the three textbooks, BLC and PE contain more significant cultural information inside the chapter lessons relative to WP. One of the reasons is that both BCL and PE include dialogues, interviews, narratives, vocabularies and cultural boxes that facilitate the understanding of culture. BLC gives students some information about geographic locations, the economy, as well as daily habits. PE gives the same information and goes further as it raises awareness of various regions of Brazil, Portugal and African Portuguese speaking countries along with geographical information. However, PE's main focus is on Brazil and Portugal, and yet the Brazilian content is predominant (Gualda, 2009). According to Kramsch (1993), information about geographic locations, the economy, as well as daily habits expands vocabulary and helps to assimilate grammar.

As an example of the different cultural perspectives presented in the textbooks, I note in BLC, "Notas culturais" (Cultural notes), in PE, "Vamos Viajar" (Let's travel), and in WP, "Cultura" (Culture). In the realm of the family subject, I present in Table 5.4 below a sample of the different cultural perspectives presented. BLC has the title in

Portuguese "A família brasileira" (Brazilian family) and the informative text is written in English, and it is dedicated specifically to the Brazilian family as the name suggests.[62] PE and WP have almost identical titles (Family ties) written in Portuguese followed by the informative text also written in Portuguese on the family subject. However, PE describes the family more generally as an institution in the whole Portuguese-speaking world.

Table 5.4

Cultural Perspectives: The Family Subject

Brasil Língua e Cultura - Notas culturais (cultural notes), p. 99 A família brasileira (the Brazilian family): "Brazilian families are quite different from North American families in a number of ways…"
Ponto de Encontro, Vamos Viajar (let's travel), p.155 Laços familiares (family ties): "A familia é uma das instituições sociais mais importantes no mundo de lingua portuguesa …" (the family is one of the more important institutions in the Portuguese language world…)
Working Portuguese - Cultura, (culture), p.84 Laços Familiares (family ties): "A estrutura da família brasileira é semelhante à da norte-americana mas diferente na forma de se relacionar e de conviver…" (the structure of a Brazilian family is similar to the North American family, however the Brazilian family is different in the way they relate to each other and coexist).

[62] English translation by Célia Bianconi except the text of BLC, which is originally written in English.

BLC and WP explicitly call the learner's attention to the differences between Brazilian and North American families, while PE does not mention differences between the families of the two countries directly, but opens the subject to discussion more implicitly.

The length of the given cultural information in the three textbooks may vary in size and content. In BLC (p.164) the section named "Vozes brasileira" (Brazilian voices): "Os fins-de-semana" (The weekends) has a passage that says that in Brazil people are more extroverted, both male and female, and that it is easier to find someone to date in Brazil than in any other places in the world. The picture that illustrates the text shows a drunken young male (student) being held by another young male. In my view this is not factual information, it is an interpretation of the Brazilian cultural landscape which can eventually lead the learner to have a distorted impression of the factual information.

In PE (p. 42), "Vamos viajar" (Let's travel), a section named "Vida Universitaria" (University life), the passage that compares universities of Portugal and Brazil with universities in the United States, states that universities in Brazil and Portugal do not monopolize the students' social life like the universities in the United States. This may be factual information and may have important cultural ramifications. For example, university students in Brazil and Portugal, by continuing to live with their parents during their higher education period should have a different social lifestyle than U.S. university students that live on campus during their higher education period. However, the statement that the student's social life is monopolized in the U.S. may not be a fact for a learner in a U.S. university. It may seem like an interpretation of the fact that they live on campus.

In general, the language presented in the three textbooks is bound up with culture, incorporating syntax and vocabulary in discussions of communication and culture. Through readings and activities such as acting out dialogues, dramatizing situations, class discussions, and videos, we note the cultural context. In BLC, language (discourse) is more informal and provides terms used by young people such as jargon or slang. On the other hand, in PE the discourse tends to be more formal and standard, and in WP the discourse is more standard and business-like.

The business communication case in point of WP is worth discussing further. Novinger (2003, p.137) entitled *Communicating with Brazilians* states that "…(the) North Americans are more straight forward in 'Get (ting) to the point,' to cut off lengthy explanations or chitchat, in business as well as in personal conversations." This would imply that Brazilians in Brazil would not communicate with full formality in business situations. For Brazilians, the more American business-like attitude may be offensive, as they value personal relationships to be important even in business negotiations. In the WP textbook, the authors do not discuss or explain cultural communication patterns that differ across the two cultures.

In Table 5.5 below I illustrate the lack of cross-cultural pattern highlighting the dialogs. The location is in a restaurant where four characters interact. The characters are a business male and a business female, the host and the waiter.

Table 5.5:

WP (Lesson 4, p. 220), Almoço entre dois empresários (lunch between two entrepreneurs)

A Sra. Mendes e o Sr. Mendes encontram-se para seu almoço de negócios. Eles são muito bem recebidos pela recepctionista e pelo garçom do Restaurante Fino Prato	Mrs. and Mr. Mendes meet for a business lunch. They are very nicely welcomed by the waiters of the Restaurant Fine Plate
Sr. Castro: Uma mesa para dois, por favor	Mr. Castro: A table for two please.
Receptionista: Onde preferem sentar? Aqui dentro ou ao lado de fora?	Host: Where do you prefer to sit? Inside or outside?
Sra. Mendes: Aqui dentro, perto da janela, por favor.	Mrs. Mendes: Inside, close to the window, please.
Receptionista: Acompanhem-me, por favor. Esta mesa está boa para os senhores?	Host: Follow me, please. Is this table good for the Ms. and Mr.?
Sra. Mendes: Sim, está ótima.	Mrs. Mendes: Yes, it is great
Receptionista: Muito bem, o garçom virá em um minuto.	Host: Very well, the waiter will be with you in a minute.
Garçom: Boa noite. Aqui está o cardápio. Os senhores gostariam de beber algo?	Waiter: Good evening. Here is the menu. Would the Ms. and Mr. like something to drink?
Sra. Mendes: Para mim um guaraná Antartica, sem gelo, por favor.	Mrs. Mendes: For me a soft drink without ice, please.
Sr. Castro: Para mim uma caipirinha, por favor.	Mr. Castro: For me a "caipirinha,"[63] please.
Sra. Mendes: Eu gostaria de tomar a sopa do dia. Vou querer também arroz a grega com peito de frango grelhado.	Mrs. Mendes: I would like the soup of the Day. Also, I will have Greek rice with grilled chicken breast.
Garçom: Muito bem! E o senhor? O que deseja?	Waiter: Very well! And you Sir? What would you like?
Sr. Castro: Eu quero o arroz de carreteiro e uma picanha argentina.	Mr. Castro: I want the rice of the "carreteiro" style and the Argentina style meat (picanha).
Garçom: Ótimo! Um momento, por favor.	Waiter: Excellent! One moment, please.
Sr. Castro: Então vamos aos negócios?	Mr. Castro: So, should we talk business then?
Sr. Mendes: Sim, vamos falar do nosso projeto…	Mrs. Mendes: Yes, let's talk about our project...

Note: Translation to English by Célia Bianconi

[63] "Caipirinha" is very typical Brazilian alcoholic drink made with alcohol from sugar cane called "pinga" and lemon and ice.

In this scene the authors choose a dialogue between two Brazilians and their discourse is more like Americans in a business interaction. They arrive at the restaurant, get to their table, order food and immediately the Brazilian male says “Então vamos aos negócios?” (So, should we talk business then?). There is neither small talk nor any attempt to establish a personal relationship. According to many authors such as Novinger (2003, p.137) and Harrison (1983) a typical Brazilian business communication is often initiated by small talk that involves questions about family and life in general. In the American business world, this kind of interaction may be perceived as not very professional and not a good use of time. Therefore, the text does not point out the Brazilian cultural differences *vis a vis* the American. The purpose of this lesson/dialogue seems to be limited to vocabulary, grammar teaching, and functions (Wilkins, 1974) and does not reflect the Brazilian preferred manners. Therefore it becomes an artificial interaction.

In addition, there are several stereotypes regarding gender roles. The male in this scene is in control of the conversation flow: he asks for the table; he initiates the business conversation changing the topic from ordering food to business. This can be construed as if he is the dominant figure in the whole situation. On the other hand, the female is portrayed as passive; her role is limited to answering questions from the other three characters. The stereotype is also visible in their food and drink order. The female (Sra. Mendes) asks for a soft drink, soup and grilled chicken while the male (Sr. Castro) orders an alcoholic beverage and meat. This visibly perpetuates stereotypes that are prevalent both in the U.S. and in Brazil.

In the two other textbooks, PE and BLC, the scene also occurs in a restaurant but they differ in the purpose of the encounter. The dialogues occur between two male and female friends. First, Table 5.6 below shows a scene of a couple that goes to a restaurant to celebrate the female's birthday from PE.

Table 5.6

PE (Lesson 3, p. 109) A Comida (the food)

No restaurante. Sueli e Ronaldo estão num restaurante português no Rio de Janeiro para comemorar o aniversário de Sueli.	In the restaurant. Sueli and Ronaldo are in a Portuguese restaurant in Rio de Janeiro to celebrate Sueli's birthday.
Garçom: Boa noite. O que os senhores vão pedir?	Waiter: Good evening. What will the Mrs. and Mr. have?
Ronaldo: Sueli, vamos começar com uma porção de bolinhos de bacalhau?	Ronaldo: Sueli, should we start with a portion of cod cakes?
Sueli: Vamos! Adoro bolinho de bacalhau!	Sueli: Let's do it! I love cod cakes.
Garçom: E depois?	Waiter: And after?
Sueli: Para mim, uma salada russa primeiro e depois sardinhas assadas.	Sueli: For me, first a Russian salad and then baked sardines.
Ronaldo: Eu quero carne de porco à alentejana.	Ronaldo: I want pork meat "alentejana" style.
Garçom: E para beber?	Waiter: And to drink?
Ronaldo: Vamos beber vinho. Você prefere vinho branco ou vinho tinto, Sueli?	Ronaldo: Let's drink wine. Sueli, do you prefer white or red wine?
Sueli: Um vinho branco vai bem! E também uma água mineral com gás, por favor.	Sueli: The white wine is fine! And also, a sparkling mineral water, please.

Note: English translation by Célia Bianconi

The scene presented in this situation is much more informal at various levels than the WP dialogue. There is no host to greet them upon their arrival, it seems that they seat themselves and the waiter comes in ready to take their order. At the discourse level, the main characters are introduced by their first name "Sueli" and "Ronaldo" unlike in the WP dialog where the characters are introduced by "Sr." and "Sra." (Mr. and Mrs.) followed by their last name. In PE, even-though the male "Ronaldo" starts the

conversation, his way is subtler and the male and female interaction is more even in the sense that he consults her about food and drink orderings. All of the male utterances are formulated in a way that gives the female ("Sueli") a chance to voice her choice. However, the male is still in control of the whole situation. For example, when the waiter asks what they are going to drink, he immediately replies "Vamos beber vinho" (let's drink wine). After deciding about the beverage, he then consults the female about the type of wine. This of course can be interpreted in several ways; one of them is that they are very intimate and they know each other's preferences. The other way of looking at this is to depict him as a dominant male.

It is worth noting that the scene is set in a Portuguese restaurant in Rio de Janeiro. The authors' choice reveals some particularity of Rio de Janeiro and the Portuguese - speaking world. Rio de Janeiro is well known in Brazil to have a variety of excellent Portuguese restaurants, which demonstrates some of the cultural habits of the locals, *the carioca* (from Rio de Janeiro) dining habits. The other observation is that it serves to the purpose of the authors of PE to emphasize their goal of exposing students to the diversity of the Portuguese speaking-world.

In Table 5.7, I present the BLC dialog. As already mentioned above it also occurs in a restaurant and the characters are a male and a female friend who are dining together. It can be noted that the restaurant in this scene is more upscale than the one in PE, in the sense that it has a host and a more formal waiter. However, the formal ambiance does not affect the language register, which is even more informal than PE. For example; "Sônia" the female says: "Me traz um Martini, por favor" (Bring me a Martini, please). This is a vivid example of Brazilian culture. Starting a sentence with an indirect pronoun is a

colloquial and particular way of Brazilians to orally express themselves. Another interesting linguistic observation that reveals the Brazilian culture is the use of the diminutive by females as in “Sônia’s” utterance “Bonitinho mesmo. Estou gostando” (Really pretty. I like it). Regarding the male dominance pointed out in the two previous dialogues, the dialogues in BLC seems to be more female inclusive. The male character, “Scott”, does not decide alone; he always consults. It shows that they have more equal importance. Their food choice is also revealing. They both order meat and different alcoholic beverages.

Table 5.7

BLC (Lição 10 p. 223) "Scott convida sua colega Sônia para jantar…" (Scott invites his colleague Sonia for dinner)

Maître: Boa noite. Vão jantar?	Maitre: Good evening. Are you going to have dinner?
Scott: Sim, tenho uma reserva em nome de Scott Davis.	Scott: Yes, I have a reservation in the name of Scott Davis.
Maître: Pois não! Por aqui, por favor.	Maitre: Very well! This way, please.
O maître os leva a uma mesa junto da janela.	The maitre takes them to a table close to the window.
Maître: Aqui está bom?	Maitre: Is it okay here?
Scott: Acho que sim. O que você acha Sônia?	Scott: I think so. What do you think Sônia?
Sônia: Está ótimo.	Sônia: It is great.
Maítre: Muito obrigado. O garçom já vem.	Maitre: Thank you. The waiter will come soon.
Scott: Que tal o restaurante?	Scott: What do you think of the restaurant?
Sônia: Bonitinho mesmo. Estou gostando.	Sônia: Really pretty. I like it.
Garçom: Boa noite. Desejam tomar um aperitivo?	Waiter: Good evening. Would you like an aperitif?
Scott: O que você diz? Tomamos?	Scott: What do you say? Should we have it?
Sônia: Claro! Me traz um Martini por favor.	Sônia: Certainly! Bring me a Martini please.
Scott: Para mim um campari.	Scott: For me a Campari
Scott: Você quer sopa, Sônia?	Scott: Do you want soup, Sônia?
Sônia: Sim, talvez. O crème de aspargos deve ser bom.	Sônia: Yes, maybe. The cream of asparagus should be good.
Scott: E depois?	Scott: And after?
Sônia: Bem, talvez um lombo assado.	Sônia: Well, maybe a baked pork loin.
Scott: Muito bem, eu quero experimentar o churrasco…	Scott: Very well, I want to taste the barbecue…

Note: Translation by Célia Bianconi

Tables 5.5-5.7 above illustrate the points discussed in this chapter by choosing a common topic and analyzing some of the main differences in the dialogues. In my analyses, there is a gradual display of a pattern in the sense that the language in the WP dialogue is more formal than the language in PE, which is more formal than the language

in the BLC dialogue. The same pattern applies to the male dominance. In WP, the male controls the interactions, in PE he is less controlling, and in the BLC he is more inclusive of the female voice. Another point of interest is that both WP and BLC do not give a geographic location of the restaurant, they could be anywhere in the world. On the other hand, PE informs the geographic location, Rio de Janeiro, but also that it is a restaurant from another Portuguese speaking country. This is important because it offers the possibility for the teacher to introduce and explain a cultural fact.[64]

In spite and because of the criticisms stated above, the three dialogues convey cultural aspects that Kramsch (1998) calls "lowbrow" and Brooks (1964) calls small "c." In effect, the small "c" enables students to compare the social-cultural milieu of the foreign country with their own and their everyday habits. This is particularly important when we compare small "c'' to capital "C" because small "c" makes the role of culture in language learning an essential part for the full understanding of how language and culture are connected within all societies. The more accurate the given information is, the more and the better the learner will be able to understand and assimilate the target language and culture. Regarding capital "C" the cultural information belongs to a more elitist domain, which is generally less visible in a daily life.

More examples of the "small c" approach can be found in BLC, lesson 4 "aspectos da sociedade Brasileira" (aspects of Brazilian society). One of the readings in this lesson is titled "A vida na cidade de São Paulo" (The life in the city of São Paulo). The text starts with: "A vida é muito agitada… São Paulo tem os melhores lugares do

[64] Also, I note that Brazil is an ethnically diverse country. However, themes related to race and ethnicity are not directly presented and/or discussed in the three textbooks.

mundo para comer qualquer tipo de comida…" (Life is very agitated… São Paulo has the best places to eat any type of food…). In lesson 11: DDD, CEP, Transporte (Long distance call, zip code and transportation). One of the texts explains how to make a long distance call and describes: "Se você desejar fazer uma ligação interurbana, você disca primeiro número zero…" (If you would like to make a long distance call, first you dial number 0…).

In PE, other examples of "small c" can be found in "Vamos viajar" (let's travel). Those are readings that share information about the particularities of the Lusophone community. For example: "O exterior e o interior das casas" (the exterior and the interior of the houses). The text describes the different types of housing in Brazil "…Brazilia, inaugurada em 1960, é uma cidade com bairros residenciais e edifícios públicos exclusivamente modernos…" (…Brazilia, established in 1960, is a city with residential neighborhoods and public buildings exclusively modern…). In "Primeira vista" (First sight) one of the readings is "Diversões populares" (Popular entertainments). The small readings describe the picture of people at the beach, at a party, seated and walking on a sidewalk. "Estes brasileiros vão à praia nas horas de lazer…" (…These Brazilians go to the beach during leisure time…).

In WP there are also examples of small "c" in the lesson about "Cumprimentos" (Greetings). The text explains how people greet each other according to their age and social status. However, in general, WP is more factual. One of the readings "History and political system of Brazil" is followed by four questions, in which three of them are about the comprehension of the reading and the fourth asks students to compare the Brazilian

political system with the system of their own country. This is a clear example of the highbrow capital “C” approach.

Particularly, WP is the only one of the three textbooks analyzed that explicitly asks students to make comparisons with the learners’ own culture. In both BLC and PE, exercises are more implicit. One of the five components in the ACTFL Standard for foreign language teaching (the five Cs) is “Comparison” which allows students to draw from their own culture to understand the culture of the target language. When students have the opportunity to reflect upon and make comparisons with their own culture it also raises awareness of how cultures are similar and yet so different.

Importantly, the use of technology in the three textbooks (audio, CD, DVD) features a means of conveying information to students about the way in which other people in other countries speak, feel, act and react. It is a reflection of the new trends applicable to FL teaching and learning, which allow learners of the target language to capture elements that occur in real conversations, like body language and eye contact. This enhances comprehension in context, something that can be lost in the written form.

As mentioned in the introduction of this chapter, language textbooks are one of the most reliable materials for teachers to teach and students to learn. The language in a textbook gives the tone of how people should communicate in a target language. The three textbooks reviewed in this chapter follow the communicative language teaching approach (Widdowson, 1978; Pica, 1988; Richards, 2006; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Habermas, 1970; Savignon, 1972, 1997) and follow the goal areas of the ACTFL standards for foreign language learning with emphasis on communication, culture, connections, comparison and communities. The three textbooks base their lessons on

dialogues that complement the grammar lessons, and also use English to explain grammar rules and cultural facts to facilitate the learning of its target audience, i.e. the learner in the United States.

Out of the three books, WP may be considered restricted, since it aims at students and professionals seeking communicative skills in the Brazilian business world. On the contrary, BLC and PE target undergraduate learners and more broad content of topics. In general, the contents of the textbooks intend to give learners cultural competence.

Summary

In this chapter, I have presented an overview of the importance of foreign language teaching using meaningful and contextual material, whether it explores grammar topics, vocabulary, literature or facts. First, I gave a brief chronological review of the shifts in foreign language teaching up to the main current Communicative language teaching (CLT) approach and followed by important definitions of culture. I defined culture through the lens of Tylor (1871), Benedict (1934), Geertz (1973), Duranti (1997), and Brown and Eisterhold (2004).

In terms of culture and language in classroom teaching, I drew upon the anthropological approach of Brooks (1964) and the distinction of culture with capital “C” and small “c.” The analogy to Kramsch’s (1998) ‘highbrow” and “lowbrow” information in foreign language teaching and learning is also explored. Both Brooks and Kramsch argue for the importance of “small c/lowbrow” information because it provides a more meaningful and contextual content, given in a particular situation.

My analysis of three recent textbooks, *Brasil língua e cultura* (BLC), *Ponto de encontro* (PE), and *Working Portuguese* (WP) focuses on communication and culture in

text and context. First I provide a detailed description of each of the textbooks. In particular, I have followed the ACTFL's five "Cs" in foreign language education: Communication, Culture, Connections, Comparisons and Communities.

The key finding is that all three textbooks include cultural aspects of Brazil in their text and context. There are subtle differences in the treatment of culture in the textbooks, with particular cases where the interpretation goes beyond the factual aspect of the situation. However, all three adhere to the contemporary vision of FL teaching and learning where communicative fluency and culture play the predominant role.

Of the three textbooks analyzed, two of them, BLC and PE include dialogues, interviews, narratives, vocabulary and cultural boxes with more significant information about Brazilian culture. I provide examples of different cultural perspectives in the three textbooks, in the realm of family and travel. I identified dialogues in the three textbooks to discuss cultural behavior, gender roles and language register. Furthermore, I provide several comparisons of how each textbook explore the lowbrow/small "c" with focus on its importance in daily life.

In conclusion, at different levels, all three textbooks offer possibilities for teachers to explore language and culture.

Chapter Six - Conclusions

This dissertation has presented an investigation of teaching and learning of Portuguese as a foreign language in higher education in the United States. It focuses on Brazilian Portuguese variation and culture. The focus of this research was grounded on the history of foreign languages in higher education and expanded into several areas. It consists of first a quantitative and a hypothesis-generating case study investigation of undergraduate students' motivation to learn Portuguese as a foreign language. Then, a quantitative investigation of who is currently teaching Portuguese language and then an analysis of the three textbooks currently used to teach Portuguese in higher education with special attention to their cultural content.

I investigated who learns Portuguese, who teaches Portuguese and how it is currently taught in the U.S. In a broader sense, I studied the current situation of PFL in the United States from the political, economic and cultural perspectives.

Chapter two unveiled the history and the politics that affected, and currently affect foreign language education in the U.S. Events such as World War II contributed significantly to the fortification of foreign language teaching in general and the creation of government incentives for improving the quality of foreign language teaching and learning. On the political and economic side, chapter two also highlighted the fact that, after World War II, the U.S. focused its attention on South America, specifically on Brazil, which motivated a wave of the teaching and learning of Brazilian Portuguese language and culture. An analogous phenomenon can be observed in the current times. In more recent years, Brazil has become part of a new group of "emerging markets" in a new globalized and interrelated world. A particular category includes countries such as

Brazil, Russia, China, and India, known as the “BRIC” countries.

Chapter three showed that students are motivated to learn Portuguese for reasons connected to cultural and professional interests in the lusophone world, more specifically in Brazil. I presented a quantitative analysis of a survey focused on undergraduate students in five universities in the northeast of the United States, which identified the reasons that motivate students to take Portuguese as a foreign language. Then I presented a hypothesis-generating case study of an interview of a student of PFL.

Chapter four studied the results of a survey of current Portuguese faculty teaching in the U.S. The main purpose was to examine teacher’s qualifications in the field of Portuguese as a foreign language, such as their educational background, degree level, training and experience as well as their current employment situation. The results of this survey clearly demonstrated that the faculty who participated in my investigation is indeed well qualified in terms of degree level, training and experience.

Chapter five studied the role of culture in FL education. Historically, the focus of FL teaching shifted from grammar and drill exercises to communicative fluency and knowledge of the culture in the country of the target language. Communicative fluency and culture became the contemporary focus of FL teaching and learning. The three Portuguese language textbooks analyzed in this chapter clearly show that culture is paramount both in text and context.

The key findings of my research are as follows. First, great events such as wars, economic, and technological advances have a decisive effect on foreign language teaching and learning. Second, the main reasons that motivate students to learn PFL in the U.S. are: interest in learning different languages; plans to travel in a Portuguese-

speaking country; interest in Brazilian culture; familiarity with Spanish; and a skill needed to reach professional goals. The motives above are all instrumental and integrative motives that may be attributed to the desire of becoming a more knowledgeable person and to facilitate travel to the target language.

As part of my study on motivation, I presented a hypothesis-generating analysis of an interview of one of my students. This analysis was based on the review of the literature on motivation after the primary research work of Gardner and Lambert (1959). The student in my case study was learning PFL to be better integrated in a Portuguese religious community as a more active participant using the target language as well as to seek better job opportunities. As suggested in the work of Lave and Wenger (1991) the situated leaner is identified as a member of a group who share the same interest and has interest in being a full participant in the group (community of practices). This becomes the main motivation to learn.

Third, the profile of faculty teaching PFL currently in the U.S. provided some evidence to suggest that they are mostly women, in the age range of 35 to 50 years of age, who have learned Portuguese at home and have experience and training in the field.

Fourth, the Brazilian culture is portrayed in the current textbooks published and used in the U.S. Through the lens of culture my textbook analysis emphasized the importance of the use of authentic reading materials and factual texts to help students understand the culture of the target language, more specifically the Brazilian culture.

Suggestions for future research

There are several unanswered questions that deserve further attention in the field of foreign language education with special focus on Portuguese in general.

First and foremost, I have shown above that Portuguese language teaching and learning in higher education in the United States has experienced considerable growth in the last two decades. However, while Portuguese is the fifth most spoken language in the world, it remains among the less common taught foreign languages in the U.S. Why is this the case? More research in the specific politics and budgetary decisions of administrators in higher education is needed to better understand this phenomenon.

Second, the focus of my dissertation is on Brazilian Portuguese. There is no doubt that there exists a tension between European Portuguese and Brazilian Portuguese as the subject of foreign language education. A more comparative scope for analysis of PFL in the U.S. is certainly subject of further inquiry. Moreover, an extensive study comparing the Portuguese and Brazilian variants is needed.

This also relates to the complex problem of motivation in foreign language acquisition. My quantitative and case study analysis of motivation draws attention to the students' motivation to take Portuguese. However, a follow-up study with more focused questions is needed to add more reasons to understand what motivates students to take PFL classes. In particular, it would be useful to research whether or not offering new Portuguese as a foreign language courses can attract more students and generate growth in Portuguese enrollments.

Fourth, my investigation of the current Portuguese faculty gives us a view of the professionals in the field. However, future research should focus on teacher's training and

the kinds of training that are needed to improve the teaching of PFL. Further investigation of the profile of FL teachers in higher education would be beneficial to compare it to Portuguese as a foreign language sample.

In general, Portuguese language teaching and learning have not been vastly researched and didactic resources are scarce. I hope that this study will draw some attention to the importance of expanding collaboration among Portuguese faculty to improve the quantity and quality of Portuguese instruction in the U.S.

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Appendices

Appendix A – Institutional Review Board

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Office of the Provost

Institutional Review Board

February 18, 2011

To: **Celia Bianconi**

From: Gene Diaz, Co-chair Lesley IRB

RE: Application for Expedition of Review: Motivation and second language acquisition: A case study

IRB Number: 10-053

This memo is written on behalf of the Lesley University IRB to inform you that your application for approval by the IRB through expedited review has been granted. Your project poses no more than minimal risk to participants.

If at any point you decide to amend your project, e.g., modification in design or in the selection of subjects, you will need to file an amendment with the IRB and suspend further data collection until approval is renewed.

If you experience any unexpected "adverse events" during your project you must inform the IRB as soon as possible, and suspend the project until the matter is resolved.

An expedited review procedure consists of a review of research involving human subjects by the IRB chairperson or by one or more experienced reviewers designated by the chairperson from among members of the IRB in accordance with the requirements set forth in 45 CFR 46.110.
Source: 63 FR 60364-60367, November 9, 1998.

Date of IRB Approval: 2/18/2011

Appendix B – Table B.1

Portuguese Enrollments in the U.S.- Percentage change from previous period starting in 1983 - Entire U.S. and By State

Year	1986	1990	1995	1998	2002	2006	2009
Entire US	15.3%	20.6%	6.8%	6.0%	21.1%	22.4%	10.8%
Alabama	221.7%	-40.5%	-34.1%	-58.6%	108.3%	-28.0%	61.1%
Arizona	85.7%	-11.5%	115.5%	-36.3%	30.3%	34.0%	41.5%
California	14.2%	-5.7%	-2.8%	-40.4%	82.8%	47.3%	22.8%
Colorado	-9.1%	10.0%	-36.4%	271.4%	-3.8%	94.0%	217.5%
Connecticut	-30.4%	87.2%	-12.3%	73.4%	-36.9%	75.7%	-42.3%
Delaware	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
District of Columbia	-17.5%	38.5%	-29.2%	26.5%	22.5%	29.1%	-1.0%
Florida	44.0%	15.5%	17.5%	9.9%	83.3%	29.9%	-15.3%
Georgia	309.1%	162.2%	27.5%	33.6%	-17.7%	14.5%	-29.3%
Hawaii	--	--	475.0%	-100.0%	--	--	-66.7%
Idaho	--	--	--	--	--	-100.0%	--
Illinois	26.7%	91.4%	-22.4%	-37.4%	104.2%	-18.9%	-29.4%
Indiana	-29.6%	63.8%	63.7%	236.8%	-23.6%	-47.7%	6.8%
Iowa	82.5%	-27.9%	20.0%	36.7%	-40.7%	32.9%	-27.8%
Kansas	104.0%	-13.7%	-40.9%	-15.4%	159.1%	29.8%	10.8%
Kentucky	40.0%	-100.0%	--	--	--	--	-53.5%
Louisiana	-57.3%	-34.4%	33.3%	67.9%	74.5%	0.0%	-9.8%
Maine	-100.0%	--	33.3%	-50.0%	0.0%	75.0%	-100.0%
Maryland	1566.7%	142.0%	-24.0%	-10.9%	9.8%	-32.2%	86.9%
Massachusetts	35.9%	1.9%	12.4%	14.9%	42.1%	33.6%	-18.8%
Michigan	-53.1%	152.2%	32.8%	-24.7%	41.4%	72.0%	-21.3%
Minnesota	-16.7%	78.0%	-64.0%	165.6%	18.8%	17.8%	28.6%
Mississippi	5.9%	44.4%	42.3%	5.4%	-30.8%	-11.1%	-45.8%
Missouri	-54.8%	236.8%	-76.6%	26.7%	115.8%	95.1%	-17.5%
Nebraska	19.5%	-20.4%	-100.0%	--	15.6%	-100.0%	--
Nevada	--	--	--	--	--	--	10.0%
New Hampshire	236.4%	-48.6%	-68.4%	466.7%	5.9%	75.0%	-69.8%
New Jersey	-17.5%	31.8%	-3.4%	133.3%	46.9%	50.7%	-3.0%
New Mexico	36.4%	3.8%	-31.2%	33.3%	22.0%	33.6%	1.8%
New York	-11.4%	-10.0%	38.3%	-30.4%	36.2%	71.0%	62.1%
North Carolina	13.8%	-4.2%	15.9%	9.2%	-13.5%	11.6%	16.6%
Ohio	-40.3%	225.0%	-30.0%	-18.7%	33.8%	93.9%	-5.2%
Oklahoma	-57.1%	50.0%	266.7%	-39.4%	125.0%	-51.1%	145.5%
Oregon	-100.0%	--	23.5%	-33.3%	121.4%	-100.0%	--
Pennsylvania	100.0%	0.0%	-23.3%	26.5%	4.2%	32.8%	-4.8%
Rhode Island	-18.7%	8.0%	8.2%	-17.0%	14.6%	55.0%	-3.1%
South Carolina	14.3%	-53.6%	123.1%	5.2%	108.2%	-11.0%	22.1%
Tennessee	92.5%	23.8%	-46.5%	7.8%	-1.2%	62.6%	28.3%
Texas	5.6%	18.4%	31.6%	-1.7%	37.1%	10.5%	11.1%
Utah	12.3%	127.4%	21.9%	1.2%	21.8%	-8.0%	24.6%
Vermont	-100.0%	--	28.6%	155.6%	113.0%	-30.6%	176.5%
Virginia	-7.0%	17.5%	51.1%	4.2%	-67.6%	62.5%	79.5%
Washington	-100.0%	--	153.3%	-23.7%	22.4%	-1.4%	-27.1%
West Virginia	-100.0%	--	33.3%	-100.0%	--	--	-64.3%
Wisconsin	38.7%	37.7%	-9.8%	-1.1%	-17.0%	-12.3%	8.9%
Wyoming	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Source: MLA Database.

Appendix C – Questionnaire chapter four

Portuguese Language Teacher in Higher Education Survey Questionnaire

1. Where were you born? _____ _____

2. Have you lived in any other country, other than the US?

( ) Yes ( ) No

If Yes, name the countries you have lived:_____ _____.

3. What is your gender?

( ) Male ( ) Female

4. What is your current age?

( ) 20 to 30

( ) More than 30 to 40

( ) More than 40 to 50

( ) More than 50

5. How long have you lived in the US?

( ) 1 – 5 years

( ) More than 5 years to 10 years

( ) More than 10 years to 15 years

( ) More than 15 to 20 years

( ) Other, please indicate the number of years_____

6. What is the highest level of education you completed?

( ) Bachelor's degree

( ) Master's degree

( ) Ph.D. or equivalent

( ) Other, please explain_____

7. What country (ies) did you receive your degree(s) from?

_____United States_____

8. What is (are) the field(s) of your degree(s)?

_____

9. What is your mother tongue (first language)? _____

10. Where did you learn Portuguese?

( ) At Home

( ) In School

( ) Travel abroad

( ) Other, please specify _____

11. What language(s) do you speak at home? _____

12. Are you currently teaching Portuguese as a foreign language?

( ) Yes ( ) No

- If Yes in 12, at what level?

( ) undergraduate

( ) graduate

( ) Other, please specify_____

13. Do you teach any other language as well?

( ) Yes ( ) No

- If Yes in 13, which one(s)?

_____, _____, _____.

14. Current employment position:

( ) Professor
( ) Assistant
( ) Associate
( ) Full
( ) Other, pleased specify_____

( ) Senior Lecturer
( ) full-time
( ) part- time

( ) Lecturer
( ) full-time
( ) part- time

( ) Language Coordinator
( ) full-time
( ) part- time

( ) graduate student
( ) full-time
( ) part- time

Other, please specify:_____

15. How long have you been teaching Portuguese as a foreign language?

( ) 1 to 2 years

( ) More than 2 years to 5 years

( ) More than 5 years to 8 years

( ) More than 8 years to 12 years

( ) Other, please specify_____

16. Have you attended any professional development course or program:

In the last 3 years?

( ) Yes ( ) No

More than 3 years ago?

( ) Yes ( ) No

17. If Yes in 16, which one(s) you attended?

( ) Workshop

( ) Conference

( ) Other, please specify __training as language instructor at university_department of romance languages_____

18. Have you had any other job before teaching Portuguese as a foreign language?

( ) Yes ( ) No

19. If yes in 18 please specify __research assistant (unrelated to language teaching)_____

20. Teaching Portuguese as a foreign language was your first choice of work?

( ) Yes ( ) No

21. Have you ever received any training to teach Portuguese as a foreign language?

( ) Yes ( ) No

- If Yes in 21 , what kind of training? __ _____
- If Yes in 21, what was the name of the degree, certificate received?___ _____
- If Yes in 21, what was the total time duration of the training?_____ _____
- If Yes in 21, how many hours per week?

  ( ) Less than 4 hours

  ( ) More than 4 to 8 hours

  ( ) More than 8 to 12 hours

( ) More than 12 to 20 hours

( ) More than 20 hours

22. If Yes in 21: To what extent do you feel that your knowledge and skills have been enhanced in each of the following areas as a result of your teaching **training**?

	Not at all				Great extent
a. Instructional methods	1	2	3	4	5
b. Use of technology in instruction (e.g., computers, language lab)	1	2	3	4	5
c. Strategies for teaching	1	2	3	4	5

23. To what extent do you feel that your knowledge and skills have been enhanced in each of the following areas as a result of your teaching **experience**?

	Not at all				Great extent
a. Instructional methods	1	2	3	4	5
b. Use of technology in instruction (e.g., computers, language lab)	1	2	3	4	5
c. Strategies for teaching	1	2	3	4	5

24. Do you expect to continue teaching Portuguese as a foreign language?

( ) Yes ( ) No

- If No in 24, please specify why not _____

25. Do you have any other comments? (You may write in the back page if needed).

_____ ___

MANY THANKS FOR YOUR TIME AND EFFORT!

_____

Appendix D – Book samples chapter five

"Brasil! Língua e Cultura" Sample

Notas culturais (p. 6)

O Vestibular e o "cursinho"
Brazilians universities are not yet available to all bright young people because usually there are fewer openings (vagas) than there are interested students. As a result, students must take a rigorous entrance exam, called vestibular, in order to be considered for admission to any university…

Prática Oral (oral practice):
Complete the sentences below.

1. As universidades têm *have* menos *fewer* _____que candidatos
2. Em geral, os candidatos têm que *have* to passar numa prova de admissão rigoroso chamada *called*_____

Leitura (p. 92)

The Jogo do Bicho Animal Game was initiated in the 1870's, when the Rio zoo director, Baron João Batista Viana, didn't have enough money to feed his animals…

Jogo do bicho e a loteria esportiva (p. 93)

Jogo do bicho é a loteria do bicho. É uma coisa tradicional no Brasil. É um jogo illegal como a a loteira, mas illegal. Quem têm esse jogo de bicho são como se fossem "mafiosos" e são as
pessoas que dão dinheiro para aqueles desfiles de Carnaval, para as escolas de samba…

Vozes Brasileira (p.120)

Paquerando

Os Jovens vão ao bar para dançar e paquerar. Paquerar é ficar olhando… é o começo de um namoro. O menino vai, olha a menina, chega para conversar. O que diz o menino depende muito do que está acontecendo. Ou pode convidar para dançar, ou pode conversar alguam coisa que tem em comum, por exemplo, como está indo na escola, ou falar de algun amigo em comum. Normalmente é assim.
"Working Portuguese" Sample Dialog – page 88

Unidade 2 - No Trabalho

(Conjugações verbais presente do indicativo)

Simone: Jomal O Globo, boa tarde!

Ana Maria: Boa tarde. Queria informações sobre o cargo de secretária no Departamento de Comunicacão, por favor.

Simone: Certo. Mas não é apenas um cargo de secretária; é também assistente do chefe de departamento.

Ana Maria: Quais são as responsabilidades desta função, por favor?

Simone: A secretária revisa e arquiva documentos e correspondências; responde e envia cartas; prepara a folha de pagamentos; e ajuda com o lançamento de dados no computador.

Ana Maria: Que conhecimento deve ter de computador?

Simone: Precisa saber usar os programas Word, Excel, e saber processar dados. Deve enviar emails e digitar cinquenta palavras por minuto.

Ana Maria: Também tem que participar das reuniões com a diretoria?

Simone: Ah, sim. Toma notas e faz ligaçõespara avisar os outros membros do conselho.

Ana Maria: Precisa falar outras línguas?

Simone: Sim, deve ser bilíngue em inglês e português. Deseja mais alguma informação?

Ana Maria: Não, acho que já tenho todas as informações que preciso. Muito obrigada e boa tarde.
